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ABSTRACT

Eighty-nine conference papers are presented in 10 sections: (1) language and cultural factors in conducting international business (qualifications for success as an international manager, staffing of international departments, role of second language proficiency, and international management concepts); (2) interdisciplinary language and business programs (status reports, descriptions of specific language programs, and internationalization of the curriculum); (3) international business: curriculum development and teaching; (4) teaching cross-cultural business communication (program descriptions, cross-cultural training programs, and curriculum design); (5) business and professional English for speakers of other languages (written business communication); (6) teaching languages and cultures for business and professions (Chinese, Japanese, and Italian); (7) business and professional French; (8) business German (internships and case studies); (9) business and professional Spanish; and (10) Japanese language and culture (5 papers, included in the 89 previously mentioned). (DJD)

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EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
CONFERENCE ON
LANGUAGES
FOR
BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

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Preface

The Seventh Annual Conference on Languages and Communication for World Business and the Professions met in Ann Arbor, Michigan, April 7, 1988. The conference's scope and depth continue to anticipate the urgent directives of leading educators, as well as the advice of national leaders in both business and government.

Let me briefly delineate the boldest features of this conference. Thirty-six papers addressed languages and cross-cultural factors in conducting international business and in educating future leaders as well as our work force. The increasing emphasis on cultural awareness in corporations underscores the corresponding expansion of both foreign language studies and business communication into the area of global acculturation. The recent emergence of a dynamic and, at times, volatile world economy has forced corporations to acknowledge the importance of training both future and corporate competitors in global perspectives. (See sections I and IV.)

Such innovations in acculturation were matched in this conference with reports of new program and curriculum developments to mirror in education corporate awareness of this growing phenomenon. (See sections II and III.) Furthermore, thirty-five other papers explored the global perspective, linking it to several major languages and cultures. (See sections VII, VIII, IX, and X.) To further apply this approach, another fifteen papers described the art of teaching in these new directions. (See section VI.)

All this is at best a solid beginning. But as pioneers, we move on. And in spite of misapplied elitism on the part of so many, we are not alone.

The American Assembly of Colleges and Schools of Businness in April of 1988, made awareness of the global economy a top priority for adapting business studies to current international change. Moreover, the free trade agreement between the U.S. and Canada will create challenges and opportunities for both business and education, which may well signal a new era of economic development. Already, to match this challenge, the European Community has created a multinational and interdependent market, which exceeds in sheer numbers that of the U.S. and Canada combined. Japan, meanwhile has emerged as the leading financial arbiter of the world.

The vision of this conference is a harbinger of those changes. Meanwhile commission after commission resonates the same theme.

In December of 1988, and again in January 1989, William C. Friday, chair of the Commission on National Challenges in Higher Education, and members of that group met with George Bush to discuss its report, "Memorandum to the 41st President of the United States."

The commission set forth several challenges to the nation, the first of which, as a top priority, mirrors what has transpired in our 7th annual conference last April:

> "To educate Americans for an increasingly interdependent world: including strengthening international studies, student and faculty exchanges, and foreign language studies." (Chapel Hill Herald, December 1988)

As if to echo this encouraging development, on Febrary 8, 1989, David T. Kearns, Chairman and Chief Executive Officer of Xerox Corporation, led a debate on "Education for a Competitive Economy" at North Carolina State University, Raleigh. Kearns is co-author of Winning the Brain Race. Speaking of global competition and the U.S. education system, Kearns called for a restructuring of public education so that "lower schools would be organized around unique learning methods and teaching styles, and areas of emphasis like languages..." High schools "would specialize in the humanities...in math, science, and skilled vocational areas, including "two years of the same foreign language." With such a long term orientation to language studies, the foundation would be laid for professional and international awareness of what constitutes world citizenship and competent participation in the global economy.

Most recently and perhaps most significantly, the National Governor's Association, a potent force in the formulation of national domestic policy reported on February 26, 1989, that the United States is in jeopardy because so many Americans "do not know the languages, the cultures or the geographic characteristics of our competitors" and therefore, "will get...out-competed in the world market." The Governor of Virginia, Gerald L. Baliles, a long-time advocate of language studies, and Chairman of the Association further urged that the states alter curricula to add international studies, including foreign language training and geography, at all levels.

Whatever the debate, clearly this message is consonant with the mission and the expertise detailed in this wonderful collection of the proceedings.

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As co-chairman of this conference, I wish to thank my colleagues in the College of Business and the Department of Foreign Languages and Bi-lingual Studies, and especially in our recently formed World College for making the conference such a success. To Geoffrey Voght and Birgitt Reynolds we owe special thanks for organizing the conference so professionally and flawlessly. Special appreciation is due to Stella Switala who organized the manuscripts and systematized them according to the order of the conference. Without her painstaking dedication, this large collection of excellent papers would not have reached publication as readily as it has. To all my colleagues who have worked with me over the years and inspired me to dedicate my best efforts to the marriage of the humanities with practical gain and benfit, I dedicate this volume.

Gaston R. Des Harnais
March 3, 1989

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I. LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL FACTORS IN CONDUCTING INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

2

CULTURAL AND BUREAUCRATIC ENVIRONMENT OF MOSLEM COUNTRIES

by

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CULTURAL AND BUREAUCRATIC ENVIRONMENT OF MOSLEM COUNTRIES

A key to understanding the Moslem people and the religion they practice lies in the translation of the words, "Islam" and "Moslem". Both words are forms of the Arabic verb "to submit." A Moslem is one who accepts and submits to the will of Allah. To the Moslem, Islam is more than a religion to be practiced one day a week or in a few rituals; it is a detailed way of life and has a pervasive impact on the life of a Moslem.

Fundamentals of Islam

Behavior is comprehensively legislated for the Moslem. There are detailed laws and regulations prohibiting wine and gambling, covering the relations of the sexes, granting a higher status to women, stating obligations to parents, and other actions. There are definite acts one must perform to be assured of salvation. It is definitely a religion of practice as opposed to one of theory.

The major obligation of a Moslem is to say, "I hear and obey." Muhammed is recognized as the prophet of God and His teachings become the creed of Islam. The fundamentals of Islam, as set forth in the Koran, are few and relatively simple to understand. Most of the fundamentals of Islam are included in one of three categories: doctrine (iman), religious duty (ibadat), and right conduct (ihsan).

Allah reveals his will and guides men through three media: Muhammed, the Koran and the angels. Muhammed, the prophet and his messenger, was simply man at his best. The Koran is the undistorted and final word of Allah to mankind. The third medium, the angels, are agents of revelation.

Five Pilars

The practice of Islam consists of the observance of the five duties or foundations of Islam called the Five Pillars. These are:

1. Repitition of the Creed: "There is no god but Allah, and Muhammed is the Prophet of God."

2. Prayer: The good Moslem reserves time for five stated periods of prayer during the day. Friday is the special day of public prayer for all adult males when the faithful assemble in the mosque, usually at noon.

3. Fasting: During the daylight hours of Ramadan, Moslems are to abstain from food, drink, smoking, and sexual intercourse from dawn to sunset.

4. Almsgiving: There are both legal alms and freewill gifts enjoined on the Moslem.

5. Pilgrimage to Mecca: Once in a lifetime, every Moslem (man or woman) who can afford it is required to make a trip to Mecca.

Impact of Religion on Business

The impact of religion on business at both the practical and micro levels has been substantiated by several research studies. Religion is central to a culture's self-definition. A person's beliefs, values and attitudes derive in a large part from their religion, and the most vital fact about beliefs is that people act on them.

Some scholars perceive the fatalism and tradition orientation of Islam as barriers to change and economic development. They believe that this fatalistic attitude of the Moslems can be traced to centuries of hardship and lack of progress and also to the Koranic teaching that everything is foreordained and recorded on the Preserved Tablet; suggesting that change is against the will of Allah. Besides this fatalistic attitudes, there are other attitudes that are perceived as barriers to economic development, including the following.

Attitude Toward Innovation and Change

"All innovation is the work of the devil" is a quote attributable to Muhammed. It serves to illustrate the undesirable and negative view of some of the Moslem people. To them, their faith is an integration of religion, political system, and a way of life regulated by the Koran. Traditional Moslems oppose change, and a would-be reformer puts himself in a risky position.

Attitude Toward Investment

The doctrine of "transmigration of souls," i.e., that life of man is a fate-determined cycle, tends to foster an anti-investment attitude. There is no incentive to plan for the future or to find means to increase the productivity of one's natural resources. With this attitude, people tend to seek security in ownership of gold and possessions, rather than investing in the capital goods for productive business.

Attitude Toward Time

People in less developed countries measure time by natural events with hours and minutes having little significance. This attitude not only upsets the efficiency of the industrial organization, but also creates inadequate rationalization of movement, over-staffing, and feather-bedding. It also prohibits the willingness to take a long-view which is a prerequisite to long-range planning for economic developemnt.

Attitude Toward Wealth

The mass of people in developing countries experience poverty and subsistence-level living and do not share the concept of an ever-rising standard of living. Generally, the lower the standard of living, the more static the aspirations tend to be. Where money is not valued in itself and aspirations are static, the workers will quit as soon as they have met their limited desires.

Bureaucracy

"Routine and red tape are among the most deply rooted features of Egyptian bureaupathology," writes Egyptian sociologist Nazih Ayubi in a 1980 study of the problem. He notes that there is an Egyptian tendency toward "idolization of papers and documents, signatures and seals." It takes two days and 11 different approvals to transfer a car registration; it takes four days and 12 signatures to clear a shipment of books at the post office; it takes up to a week to release a simple shipment of 15 boxes from customs at the Cairo airport, including 18 signatures, two thirds of them duplicating other signatures; it can take nearly two months to transfer a residence permit to a new passport (Ignatius 1983).

Bureaucracy is a chronic problem throughout the world, but it is probably most frustrating in Egypt. Here, bureaucracy appears to control everything; and according to Youssef Sharnoubi, a manager for a local engineering firm in Egypt, it is the most important constraint facing Egypt's development. The tragedy for Egypt is that bureaucracy has detered the foreign investment that the country desperately needs. This is especially evident in the areas of: organizing business ventures, drafting agreements, and the tendering procedures.

Organizing Business Ventures

Foreign companies and investors approach the Egyptian market enthusiastically. The bureaucratic control over the market soon becomes very evident. Would-be investors are confronted with a host of tedious, unstable procedures and policies or transfers from one official to another, accomplishing nothing. In addition to the requirement that a license be granted by the Investment Authority, foreign investors need approval from the Ministry of Industry, the Ministry of Housing, the Ministry of Electricity and others. Oftentimes when these approvals appear to be in order, a minister is replaced and the process starts again. Some would-be foreign investors simply give up from exhaustion. Encouraging such investment was the aim of "Law 43," a 1974 act that established an Investment Authority to aid investors under the open-door policy. But to many businessmen, Law 43 has become a Catch-22.

Drafting Agreements

Egyptian laws and policies create another barrier for business. They are ambiguous and informal, resulting in increased costs and hardships when negotiating contracts. The current legal system, a patchwork of French, British, and Nasserist statutes, is cumbersome and inconsistent. Negotiating and drafting agreements demand excessive time and energy. Contracts tend to be too complex, because of the distrust and uncertainty on either side. Inspite of the complexity and detail of these agreements, unexpected contingencies usually result into real problems and subsequent confrontations end up being resolved on an ad-hoc basis.

Tendering Procedures

Public-sector companies have to put their orders out to tender. Tendering procedures have changed little since Law 236 of 1954 was promulgated, and the same procedures apply for all tenders in Egypt. Three areas of this procedure are expecially troublesome for potential investors: bidding, the size of the project and the necessary guarantees and payments.

Bidding: The process starts with the requisite public sector buyer company or tendering committee applying for and receiving it annual foreign exchange quota from the relevant foreign ministry. Bid documents have to be purchased to enter the tender. The buyer further stipulates two further conditions: that the bid be made through an Egyptian agent, and that a 1-2% letter of guarantee be place.

Size of Project: Once a need is established, the government in its attempt for instant development, takes the necessary steps to fill the need at a catch-up level. This results in a project of extraordinary size that generally goes beyond the financial or managerial abilities of most companies. This is especially true for those companies without the financial or political backing of their governments, for example, U.S. companies.

Guarantees and Payments: A great financial burden is imposed on potential investors. Consider the typical security guarantee requirements of a turnkey project:

Bid Bond - earnest money equal to one to five percent of the project cost.

Performance Bond - in the range of five to ten percent of the project cost.

Advance Repayment Guarantee - almost 100 percent of any funds advanced by the host country.

Opening a letter of credit is a tortuous process, extending from a minimum of three to six months. First, the award has to be approved by the central bank as the agent for the Ministry of Finance. A special committee then meets to allocate funds on a priority basis. Then there are problems of currency. The vast majority of Egypt's trade is conducted in dollars. Often a letter of credit is issued for only part of the consignment and sometimes when the supplier checks with his bank, he finds that it has no cover. Often prices rise during the delay and the supplier demands a renegotiation of terms. Usually he provides less than the original tender, but if not, the second bidder is offered the contract. If this fails, the whole order usually has to go out to tender again.

Recommendations

Specific recommedations for overcoming these problems include:

- Reduce some of the bid guarantees which most U.S. companies find financially burdensom.

- Allow U.S. contractors the option of furnishing surety bonds, which are available in the U.S. in lieu of bank guarantees, which are more difficult to secure.

- Permit local financial institutions to assume contingent liability for performance guarantees for a share in the profits.

- Provide cost information for projects to take some of the pain out of the bidding process.

- Move from fixed-cost to cost-plus (adjusted for inflation) contracts. This would reduce at least one variable from the tedious task of probable cost assessments and also reduce one of the uncertainties which most managers prefer to avoid if possible.

- Break up large projects into smaller, more manageable ones which might be attractive to a larger segment of companies.

- Break up projects into phases requiring less time and therefore less burdensome to potential investors.

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RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL CONTEXT OF MANAGEMENT IN THE ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN

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"EXECUTIVE SUMMARY"

Islam provides a map of where a society should go, how it should be organized and how the affairs of its members should be conducted, but in modern times this map has not been followed. Only in recent years have Muslims become actively interested in a society-wide implementation of Islamic teachings.

Consequently, theoretical research regarding the Islamic management system and its application to present-day societies is at an early stage. What distinguishes Islam from other philosophies is its unitary perspective on society, which insists that all of its elements must constitute an organic whole. One cannot study a particular aspect of an Islamic system, say its management, without knowledge of the entire conceptual framework.

The purpose of this paper is: 1) to analyze the religious and social context of management in an Islamic society; and 2) to begin to explore the Islamization process and its implications.

RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL CONTEXT OF MANAGEMENT IN THE ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN

SCOPE OF THE PAPER

One of the major goals of this paper is to give more form and content to the process of Islamization of the Iranian society. Islamization is seen in this paper as a phenomenon, whereby Islamic social scientists reject paradigms from the Western world and formulate their own indigenous ones. This movement is seen as part of a struggle for disengagement from western structures. Western social scientists and educators are thus put on notice that their paradigms which they typically view as international reference models, valued for their intrinsic scientific worth, are viewed as part of the neo-classical postwar extension of the United States and Western Europe. And the struggle is to reject them and to formulate "authentic" indigenous models.

The major purpose here is to put the reader on notice of the existence of the Islamic world revolt against Western social science and also to elaborate on how Islamization,the process of this revolt, works. The paper thus proposes to make the reader aware and to warn him, of the existence of this aspect of the Islamic revolt, and in addition, to shed light on how the specific case of Iran works.

Islamization resulted in the creation by Iran of their own social sciences paradigms, or less ambiguously, of local control of social science enterprises and the languages employed.

Prior to this,social science communications flow from the centers of the disciplines to the peripheries of the Islamic world with little reverse flow, and with little communication and cooperation among the peripheries.

Muslim social scientists have indicted Western social science because it has justified colonialism or neo-colonialism. They argue that in balance, Western social scientists have not contributed much to an understanding of Muslim problems - foreign experts have probably produced as much confusion as solution to problems. The earliest social scientists there were historians, bent on studying "primitive" societies. Their studies often served "as intended" to reinforce the notion of the superiority of European culture and the importance of their civilizing mission. They provided the rationale for the spread of European and U.S. expansionism.

Universities imported a routinized social science which required no creative thinking. Muslims suffered in a "culture of silence". A culture which was an echo of the center. The center talked and the Muslims listened. They absorbed the values, style of life, and the cultural myths of the West. Although modernization simulated the appearance of progress, it did not go beyond the mere reform of the structures, maintained the state of dependence, and brought with it a cultural invasion which deformed the society and reduced it to species of caricature of the West. It gave many Iranians Western vision of the world, at the expense of their originality.

Western style capitalism was offered as the universal development model, change without revolution. The business elite was given special attention, as it was seen as the engine for growth and development.

ISLAMIC ALTERNATIVE

This section focuses mainly on what is called as Islamization in the strict sense, the process whereby Muslim social scientists reject Western world's social sciences like those just discussed, and create their own. The setting of this is Iran, where Islamization of life is being called for by an ever increasing number of Muslims. The proponents of "Islamic" society claim that it would purify society, promote cultural progress, provide universal justice and exalt the word of God. Islamization, they maintain, is the sole remedy for the ills afflicting contemporary Muslim nations.

Opponents believe that an "Islamic" society unlike a "Civil" society would be based on a narrow religious ideology and would, by definition, concentrate too much power in the hands of the "ulama and their associates. Such a religious administration, they claim, would be inherently authoritarian. Thus, rather than providing a solution for the problems of the modern world, Islamic administration would pose a dangerous threat to the civil liberty of Muslims.

It is essential to understand the administration of such a society, both at the public and private level. The debate surrounding this issue presents a number of important questions. What does "Islamic management" mean? What are the ramifications of transforming this ideal of Islamic management into a reality? Is an Islamic administration by definition a religious administration?

ISLAMIC MANAGEMENT

Management is defined as an act of administrating and directing, ordering and shaping of the elements necessary to perform a job. A manager sees to it that a job has been accomplished by utilizing the labor of others. For our purpose, we are concerned with the skills needed by a manager in order to accomplish task.

In Islam, management is a derivitive of leadership, which must be based on Islamic principles. The most fundamental Islamic principles are truth and justice.

Management style is shaped by a manager's values and personal characteristics, in addition to the values and character of those who work with him in an organization. Therefore, it may be assumed that the context influences the management style. The many contexts that have an impact on Iranian management include religion (Islam), language, politics, economics and geography.

It is essential to understand the context in which a manager functions. In order to understand a manager's style one must also study the personal characteristics and value system of the individual.

Islam persists through a unique relationship between God, man, society and divine law. This relationship should directly affect the workings of the various elements in an organization. To understand the organization of management and institutions in an Islamic system, it is important to acknowledge this relationship.

Islam encourages man to utilize to the fullest possible extent all the resources that God has created and entrusted to man for his use. Non-utilization of these resources for his benefits, or for the benefit of the society, is equal to wastefulness of these resources.

The Quran states six principles of Islamic management; each one is considered as one of the fundamental pillar a manager must follow:[1]

1. A seeker of knowledge and searcher for the truth (Islam). Surrendering to the truth.

2. A communicator to provide for an effective system of communication.

3. A manager must have superior ethics, and be able to attract pious employees.

4. Purity of intentions/objectives, total familiarity with Islamic values and ethics.

5. A problem solver, a manager must have the qualities to enable him to solve complex problems.

6. Fundamental belief in consultation and a process of deliberation in decision making.

AUTHORITY

Islam extends the principle of equality before the law, and equal protection of the law and equal opportunity under the law to every member of the society. The underlying idea is to ensure maximum freedom of action for each individual within the framework of the Shariah.

The Shariah consists of constitutive and regulative codes according to which individual Muslims and community must conduct their affairs. The basic source of authority is the Quran.[2]

Compliance with the rules of the Shariah is essential to the preservation of the community and by the fact that the behavior of an individual is constrained by adherence to the binding norms of the socio-economic order, and through coercion by the collectivity. The rules cover the individual's relationships with other members of the society,and with the collectivity.

So long as the decisions of the temporal authority conform to the principles of the Shariah and are in the interest of the community, they must be obeyed. Self-interest, however, is not neglected in Islam. It in fact, considers it as a primary factor for motivation; a necessity in any organization. A system of reward and punishment is fully developed in the principles of Shariah.

OWNERSHIP

The first basic principle of ownership in Islam is that God is the ultimate owner of all property. In order that man may perform his duties and obligations, he has been given the right of possession. The second principle of property, establishes the right of the collectivity to the resources at man's disposal. Individuals are allowed to appropriate to themselves the products and profits resulting from the combination of their labor and these resources. The collectivity, however, doesn't lose its original rights either to the resources or the products resulting from the individual's creative labor applied to these resources.

LABOR AND OWNERSHIP

The relationship between labor and ownership is central in Islam, which recognizes two ways in which an individual can obtain rights to property: 1) through his own creative labor; and/or 2) through transfer, i.e. inheritance of property rights from another individual who has gained title to the property or asset through his own labor. Work, therefore, is the basis of acquisition of rights to property.

CONTRACTS

The freedom to enter into contracts and the obligation to remain faithful to their stipulations is so emphasized in Islam that Muslims are distinguished by their faithfulness to the terms of contracts.

Contracts in Islam are important, as an institution necessary for the satisfaction of legitimate human needs. The very function of the Shariah is a contract between God and man which imposes on man the duty of being faithful to his word.

In the Shariah, the concepts of reward and punishment are linked to the fulfillment of obligations incurred under the stipulations of the contract. The Shariah judges man not only for his material performance but also for his forthright intention with which he enters into every contract. This intention consists of sincerity, truthfulness, and insistance on rigorous and loyal fulfillment of what he has consented to do. The Quran directs Muslims to reduce their contracts to writing and have witnesses to the conclusion of their agreements.

A body of rules constitute a general theory of contracts that has been developed based on Shariah. It emphasizes contracts, such as sales, lease, hire, and partnerships. This body of rules establish the principle that any agreement not specifically prohibited by Shariah is valid and binding on parties and could be enforced by the courts which are to treat the parties to a contract as complete equals.

LABOR AND PROFIT

The concept of labor in Islam is broad. Islam regards labor highly and considers it an inseparable dimension of faith itself. It considers idleness or spending time in pursuit of unproductive and non-beneficial work, as a manifestation of lack of faith. All able-bodied persons must work in order to earn their living. No one who is mentally and physically able is allowed to become a liability of the family or the state through idleness and voluntary unemployment. The work which everyone is required to perform must be to the best of one's ability, but no work is considered inconsequential in terms of its rewards. Rewards must be provided as quickly as the job is done; the concept of positive reinforcement.

The right to work must be guaranteed by the state and businesses must provide every equal opportunity to work. Hence, based on its notion of individual choice and rights, Islam extends to the individual the right to choose the type of work he desires, but along with this freedom comes the social responsibility of individuals and businesses.

No line of work permissible by the Shariah is considered demeaning by Islam. Since individuals are endowed with different abilities and talents

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their productivity will differ. From each according to his stability, to each according to his productivity.

Profit is viewed positively, and a support for the community. Poverty is undesirable and a basis for social illness. Profits, however, must be generated in accordance to the laws of Islam.

Islam considers profits the lifeblood of private business which must not be harded. It must be invested within the community to improve its economic well being. The needs of the society, therefore, must be a consideration for the owner of capital.

Disposition of profits is subjected to the rules of the Shariah as well. After the obligations are met, the remainder of profits belongs to the owner but must be used in accordance with the rules of the Shariah, which forbids extravagance or waste. It cannot be used to harm others or to acquire political power to corrupt the society.

While Islam considers lawfully acquired, possessed and disposed of profits as sacred and subject to the protection of the law, this profit is a trust held on behalf of the community. Hence, one who misuses his profits may forfeit his right to his wealth. Extravagance, waste and general abuse of profits provide the basis for the community to classify him as a poor manager with a weak character, who along with his immorality is damaging the interest of the community. Such a person or business may lose the right to his wealth to one community, which may limit his right to use only a part of his property to meet his basic needs. This may be the theoretical grounds for government intervention in the operation of a business; i.e. takeovers.

Shariah provides a network of ethical and moral rules of behavior which covers the behavior of all participants in the market. It requires that these norms and rules be internalized and adhered to by all participants before theim entrance into the market. Demand in itself does not determine the price. Prices ought to be determined by observance of all Islamic code of ethics. Not all demands are recognized as legitimate cause for production. Commodities must be produced with the needs and self interest of the consumer in mind.[3/]

The rules governing business must ensure just exchange. The freedom to make contracts and the obligation to fulfill them; consent of the parties to a transaction; full unrestricted access to the market by buyers and sellers; truth in transactions; provision of full information regarding quantity, quality and prices at the time of market entering, and provisions of full weights and measures are prescribed. On the other hand, fraud, cheating, monopoly practices, coalitions & collaberations of all types among buyers and sellers, dumping actions, price controls, and bidding-up of prices without the intention to purchase are forbidden. Market must be a place for free exchange of informed and responsible men.

Although provisions are made for coercive and corrective action by authorities, the clear preference is for self management of the market. All infrastructure necessary for the existance of market is a responsibility of the state.

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

One of the major problems facing the Islamic Republic today, is shortages of qualified and skilled white collar employees. In certain government agencies, the rate of unfilled positions reach up to 40%. Consequently, those who are employed carry a greater load of responsibilities to compensate for the shortages. This leads to further deterioration of employee morale and greater inefficiencies. Some of the main reasons for the shortages and government's inability to attract fully qualified personnel include:

1. purging of loyal supporters of the Shah and those who are politically considered untrustworthy. There has been no replacement.

2. Retirement of highly experienced senior personnel, without replacement.

3. Voluntary departures, death and disabilities who have left.

4. Unattractiveness of government jobs due to low salaries in comparison to the private sector. This is specially more pronounced for individuals with highly specialized expertise; i.e., technicians, engineers, physicians, auditors, who prefer to work in the private sector. It is important to note that those individuals who decide to stay in the government prefer to stay in Tehran, which leads to greater centralization and they like to work for a selected, prestigious government organization which offers Higher salary and better employee benefits, i.e. Ministry of Oil, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and Ministry of Commerce. This is at the expense of Ministry of Education or Ministry of Transportation.

5. A deliberate policy decision on cost cutting budgets which requires government agencies to function with a bare minimum of personnel

POST REVOLUTIONARY HUMAN RESOURCES NEEDS AND PROBLEMS

The post revolutionary period has brought about many new public needs and services, which government agencies must address. The country has witnessed a 3.5 percent population growth, one of the highest birth rates in the world.

The post revolutionary period has also been synonymous with war. The war has had many indirect and direct impacts on human resource policies and allocation of manpower in the country.

INDIRECT IMPACT

Energy shortages and food rationing has led to further expansion of oil ministry in order to cope with the regulative aspects and the processing of heating oil and gasoline coupons throughout the country. The Interior Ministry, Ministry of Agriculture and provincial agriculture ministries had to handle massive demand for allocation of agriculture equipment to farmers. Ministry of Transportation and Highway Patrol faced severe difficulties to provide services to truckers. Lastly, Ministry of Industries whose responsibility is to ensure smooth operation of factories and industrial plants had major problems with providing their energy needs.

Aside from food and energy, government agencies had to ensure that basic essential and non-essential consumer goods are made available and distributed justly among the populace. For example, allocation of sugar rations has involved the Ministry of Commerce, Ministry of Agriculture, local agriculture co-ops, government nationalized banks and created tremendous need for qualified personnel to implement the plans. Distribution of tea and household appliances, such as refrigerators, fans, materials, carpets, heaters, cooking oil, detergents, soap, meat, cheese and dairy products overwhelmed the respective government agencies and stretched thin their personnel. This overall social context of the work environment has preoccupied employees and diverted their attention from their own main functions. This diversion is partly due to the fact that much time has to be devoted on the part of the salaried employees to ensure that they obtain coupons and purchase their own necessities, before stores run out of them. In the case of passenger cars and motorcycles, many government agencies faced serious problems, where much of the time was spent on discussing how to get back and forth to work. Distribution of construction materials, such as iron bars, cement, bricks, tiles, pipes and etc. has preoccupied a great many human resources at the Ministries of Commerce, Industries, Budget and Planning, Housing and Urban Planning, provincial and city governments. Any product that is rationed creates new responsibility for several government agencies, which requires adequate human resources. It is important to note that the private sector handles the largest portion of distribution channel.

DIRECT IMPACT

In addition to the indirect impact of the war on the allocations of the nations human resources, direct consequences of the war deserves attention.

Much of the resources of the front line states and government agencies responsible for their welfare is directly devoted to the war efforts. For example, the Ministry of Transportation, Ministry of Health and Human Services and Agriculture Ministry allocate a substantial portion of their human resources to alleviate problems that result from Iraqi attacks. The reconstruction of war damaged areas takes a large toll on those Ministries. Given the fact that no new employees have been added to these organizations, it naturally diverts the energy of the employees from their routine job descriptions.

POPULATION GROWTH

Another major factor contributing to manpower problems in the post-revolutionary period is the rapid population growth. This growth is putting pressure on the educational and health resources of the country. In addition, the country is faced with major housing shortages; specially in the urban areas. Recreational needs, food, clothing and public transportation must be met in the near future to cope with the demand. Given the fact that the Islamic Republic Constitution obliges the state to provide such services for the citizenry, the role of government becomes more vital.[4/]

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INTEGRATION OF THE CONTEXTS AND MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

That the techniques of Islamic management does not stand alone, but rather require supporting cultural and environmental frameworks to be effective, seems to be of little doubt. The important question however, is how and to what extent the supporting framework foster the development of and/or reinforce existing management practices in Islamic organizations.

In order to attempt to comprehend the complexity of the interrelationships between the social contexts and Iranian management practices, simultaneous causality are needed to begin to grasp the complex reality that underlies Iranian organizational administration. Such conceptual methodology has not been widely attempted by management scholars in the field of Islamic management.

It seems likely that each management practice exists within a supportive system of interlocking elements from the social contexts-(Islam and war) revolution - as well as from other contexts that were beyond the scope of coverage of this study e.g., linguistic, economics, etc.

In Islamic management, a mutually reinforcing relationship is however, encouraged. For example, the need to be part of a context or group will motivate an individual to seek out and enter a group, and to do whatever is necessary to maintain membership in that group. A natural outcome of this state of affairs is the lack of the need on the part of the organization to create massive external control mechanisms to ensure the employee does what he/she was hired to do. The worker implicitly controls his/her behavior to satisfy the need for contextualism at that moment in time. Indeed, if the organization tried to impose external control mechanisms in such situations they would alienate workers, for the workers would feel that they were being viewed with suspicion, and were being considered as outsiders to the group.

Product sabotage, lower productivity, higher absenteeism would likely result.

Over the centuries, Iranians have adopted other systems. The brief sketch presented here should make it clear that Islam proposes a viable system for the creation of a modern society.

OBSERVATIONS ON ISLAMIZATION

Muslims today are looking toward a future that holds Islamic promises and they are prepared to solve their problems with Islamic solutions, alternatives and options. This preoccupation with Islam is a quest for indiginization. With Muslims expressing themselves in Islamic rationale, Islam is coming to terms with modernity and with itself in this new historical junction. It has proved itself as the most effective modern instrument of change. Gone are the days of the Western view of Islam as a post-classical civilization.

With its revivalization, Islam is bringing the extraneous world in alignment with its value system. As long as Islam has this power of constructing itself as a political force and as long as it can generate answers in terms of moral values, it can and will remain a major viable force.

ENDNOTES

1/ See the Quran, Sura (Chapter), Tah, Ayat (Verse), 25-34.

2/ Said al-Ashmawy, "Islamic Government", Middle East Review, Spring, 1986.

3/ Monzer Kahf, "A contribution to the theory of consumer Behavior in Islamic Society",-inKhurshid Ahmad(ed)Studies in Islamic Economics

4/ See, Iran Times, Feb. 12, 1988.

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NATIONAL CULTURE-MANAGEMENT PRACTICES: UNITED STATES AND SAUDI ARABIA CONTRASTED

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NATIONAL CULTURE-MANAGEMENT PRACTICES: UNITED STATES AND SAUDI ARABIA CONTRASTED

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Doing business across national boundaries requires interaction with people, their institutions and organizations nurtured in different cultural environments. Values that are important to one group of people may mean little to another. Typical U.S. attitudes and perceptions of various things may be at variance with other people's ideas and views of the same things. To be successful in their relationships overseas, executives of international and multinational companies must be students of culture. They must not only obtain factual knowledge, but also become culturally sensitive.

Although there are as many definitions of culture as there are anthropologists, most professionals view culture as being the sum total of beliefs, attitudes, rituals, morality, institutions and artifacts that characterize human population. In other words, culture consists of learned patterns of behavior common to members of a given society---a unique life style of a particular group of people which is transmitted from one generation to another.

Saudi Arabian accumulation of wealth during the past decade has been phenomenal. It has converted the country from a marginal third world economy into one of the world's richest marketplaces. Although the population of the country is small, its buying power is high. They are no longer members of an exotic and closed society. Instead, while maintaining their traditional values, they use their abundant incomes to exercise their tastes for modern conveniences and luxury goods.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON SAUDI ARABIA

POPULATION

According to 1984's estimate the population of Saudi Arabia is 8M of which 2M is made up of foreign workers. 95% of the ethnic population is Arab and 99% are Sunni Moslems. Approximately 40% of the population is under 20 years of age so opportunities for a wide range of goods - from home computers to sporting equipment - remain considerable.

HOLY PLACES

Mecca and Medina are the holiest shrines for the moslems world over and they attract millions of pilgrims every year.

LANGUAGE

Arabic is written from right to left.

SAUDI MANUFACTURED GOODS

Today, Saudi manufacturers are producing a number of products, including travel bags, dry-cell batteries, fire extinguishers, matches, ball-point pens, carpets, perfumes, soaps and detergents, fruit juices, plastic containers and bakery products.

THE U.S. SHARE OF THE SAUDI MARKET

Saudi Arabia is at present approximately a $40 billion importer market for goods and services. In 1982 U.S. exports totalled $83 billion and it was the sixth largest export market with 21% market share.

In 1985 the Saudi Market became the tenth largest U.S. export market and while the American market share dropped to 17%, the Japanese market share of the Saudi market increased to 26%. In 1985 Saudi Arabia imported close to 300,000 cars, over a million clocks, almost 400,000 vacuum cleaners, about 200,000 sewing machines, almost 400,000 calculators, over 16 million wrist watches, almost half a million TV sets, about 800,000 air conditioners and over 820,000 refrigerators, as well as many other consumer goods.

This article contrasts the cultural traits, and their impact on management practices, of the inhabitants of Saudi Arabia with that of the U.S. Obviously in such discussions, generalities are stated that do not apply in all cases. Nevertheless, an understanding of these fundamental differences will be helpful to those who hope to succeed in Saudi Arabia.

CUSTOMS AND VALUES

Many Saudi families have Bedouin origins and a large sector of the population exhibits characteristics of the Nomadic Bedouin ethos including:

Hospitality

Entertaining a guest in Saudi Arabia is considered almost a sacred trust and that person is to be treated as well or better than one's own immediate family. It is a symbol of man's status and personal quality to be hospitable to others. To refuse another's hospitality is to insult him by denying him the opportunity to display his valued qualities of character, generosity and fellowship. Even when it is inconvenient, one is under compulsion to accept another's hospitality. Furthermore, just as he is willing to extend hospitality to others, he expects them to be hospitable to him also.

When a Saudi businessman comes to the U.S. and calls on an American executive, he expects enormous hospitality. If the American says: "I am free for 30 minutes in the office tomorrow," or "I am free for lunch next week", he might just have lost a lucrative business contract. To a Saudi, hospitality should be immediate.

Respect for Elders

Saudis, in comparison with their American counterparts, demonstrate strong visible respect for their elders and those in authority. In Islam, there is a profound respect for knowledge and experience. Since these qualities are normally associated with age, respect for one's elders in Saudi Arabia, a conservative Muslim country, is deeply ingrained. A sense of hierarchy is particularly strong in the family. A young person, for instance, will automatically rise to his feet when an elder relative enters the room.

Attitude Toward Time

Because of the nomadic background, the Saudis are slow to relate to organized systems and technological developments. Specifically, a Bedouin is concerned with a time frame which focuses on months and seasons, and he therefore, has difficulty relating to the premium placed on the efficient use of short time intervals in the U.S. Americans tend to set time objectives for the completion of tasks; whereas, Saudis do things at a leisurely pace, unmindful of interruptions because there is no compulsion to finish at a given time. Long waits for appointments are typical and interruptions may be frequent.

Americans feel more at ease when starting and completing appointments at scheduled times, and each party gives the other his or her undivided attention. In the U.S., giving a person a deadline is a way of indicating the degree of urgency or relative importance of the work. But in Saudi Arabia, the American runs into a cultural trap the moment he opens his mouth. "Mr. Adnan will have to make up his mind in a hurry because my board meets next week and I have to have an answer by then", is taken as indicating that the American is overly demanding and is exerting undue pressure.

Conversational Distance and Eye Contact

Saudis and Americans also have a different sense of distance. When conducting business, the former feels more comfortable at a distance of about two feet - whereas the latter tries to maintain about five feet distance between himself and those he is conversing with. This is a subconscious behavior of which neither party is fully aware. The closer stance of the Saudis enables them to discern much more from eye expressions. Although it has been demonstrated that the pupils dilate when one is in agreement and contract on disagreement with what another person has said. Americans have never learned to make this discernment except by mechanical measurement. Arabs have used this way of interpreting nonverbal communications for centuries.

OCCUPATIONAL DIFFERENCES

In Saudi Arabia, the distinctions in what tasks are acceptable to do are much more pronounced. In a professional position, a person would simply depend on someone else to perform various services. In the U.S. people pride themselves on not being "afraid to get their hands dirty" even though they are employed in professions that do not require manual tasks.

Equality

Although Americans pride themselves on their openness and democratic attitude, they tend to treat service people as if they were invisible, ignoring such workers as bellhops, waiters, maids, and taxidrivers, except to give them orders. In Saudi Arabia, people learn from their upbringing that every person is due visible respect and dignity irrespective of status, and the following symbols of status are not always used to identify individuals in authority.

(a) Office Size and Location

The location of an office and its size constitutes a poor index of the importance of the man who occupies it in Saudi Arabia. For instance, U.S. policy calls for the president or the chairman of the board to have the largest office. The executive vice president will have the next largest, and so on down the line. More important offices are usually located at the corners of buildings and on the upper floors. Executive suites will be on the top floors. The relative rank of vice presidents will be reflected in where they are placed along "executive row". Americans who are crowded will often feel that their status in the organization is suffering. Not so in Saudi Arabia. The president may be in what for us in the U.S. is a small, crowded office.

(b) Material Possessions

Material possessions, large space, and the proper surroundings signify that the people who occupy the premises are solid citizens, that they are dependable and successful. Saudi businessmen look for something else - family, connection, friendship. They don't use the furnishings of their office as part of their status system; nor do they expect to impress a client by these means or to fool a banker into lending more money than he should. They like good things, too, but feel that they, as persons, should be known and not judged solely by what the public sees.

Kinship

(a) Friendship

The American finds his friends next door and among those with whom he works. We take people up quickly and drop them just as quickly. Occasionally a friendship formed during school days will persist, but this is rare. Here there are few well defined rules governing the obligations of friendship. We don't use our friends to help us out in disaster as much as we do as a means of getting ahead. In Saudi Arabia the attitude to friendship is very different. Your friends are like family members and will not let you down. They are supposed to look out for your interests. Friendships in Saudi Arabia are not formed as quickly as in the U.S. but go much deeper, last longer and involve real obligations.

(b) Private and Public Life in Saudi Arabia

Personal life in Saudi Arabia is largely centered around one's family and social interactions among families. Large residences where three or more generations live with their wives and minor children are still very common. In Saudi Arabia family is a very private part of one's life. Outsiders seldom penetrate deeply into this world and certainly do not pry into an associate's family affairs by asking personal questions that would be considered very rude. A foreign businessman should not discuss his host's wife, daughters or his own in Saudi Arabia. The extended family's impact on the foreign firm derives from the fact that it is a source of employees and business connections. The trust that people place in their relatives, however distant, may motivate them to buy from a supplier owned by their cousin's cousin even though the price is higher.

A word of caution, however, must be given that this apparent segregation of women in Saudi Arabia does not imply that they have little voice in what the family buys or how it acts. Despite the outward appearance of male domination, behind closed doors, women exert a far more powerful influence.

While personal life in Saudi Arabia is very private, the public domain is very open. Business falls into the realm of public life. In public areas, queuing is not practiced; people push or yell to get attention ahead of others. In offices it will be common for a businessman to arrive for an appointment and find other businessmen already in the office or others may wander in while business is being transacted. It has its advantages in Saudi Arabia. Since the knowledge of the transaction is public, one would not risk tarnishing the family reputation by defaulting. In the private family world, there are great pressures toward honorable behavior since reputations rub off on all family members. This is often disconcerting for Americans, who consider business transactions to be very much in the private domain.

PRELIMINARY SMALL TALK

In the U.S. culture, salesmen are in the habit of getting to the point rather quickly. They rush ahead into talking about business as soon as they meet their prospect. Not so in Saudi Arabia. Business decisions are often prefaced by long and protracted conversations - "small talk" on unrelated topics. The small talk serves the purpose of evaluating the other person while establishing trust and rapport, an important process because objective evaluations (e.g. references and financial statements) are relied upon less.

Mannerism and Taboos in Saudi Arabia

a) Hand Shakes and Kissing of the Cheeks

Hands are shaken and cheeks are kissed in greeting and it is customary to look a man straight in the eye when talking to him - to build trust and confidence.

b) Exposure of the Feet

The display of the sole of the foot or shoe is one of the worst possible insults in Saudi Arabia. If you cross your legs while sitting, keep the feet pointed toward the floor.

c) Gift Bearing

Gift giving is an important aspect of every business person's life both here and overseas. Entertainment outside office hours and the exchange of gifts are part of the process of getting better acquainted. However, the language of gift giving varies among cultures just as the spoken language does. In Saudi Arabia horseriding and hunting paraphenalia go well. Flowers are not normally used as gifts. To make a real hit, give a Sheik a hunting falcon.

Level of Contact

Business customs in a given country seem to emphasize one of three kinds of contacts: top-level, middle management, or group contact. In Saudi Arabia executives are reluctant to relinquish their authority so business contacts are made at a relatively high level of management - unlike in the U.S. where there is a considerable delegation of authority.

It is unwise to do business in Saudi Arabia without a local partner. He is the key figure to business success in the area and must accordingly be selected with great care. He must be approached with the respect due to a person who is probably personally operating a multimillion dollar business enterprise. This often explains the large delays in seeking interviews; one would not expect an immediate interview with, for example, the Chief Executive of GM and he is probably poorly paid compared to the profits earned by a successful Arab businessman.

INDIGENOUS MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

Management practices in Saudi Arabia favor a traditional approach influenced by the culture, history and socioeconomic characteristics of that region. These practices are compared in accordance with the academic delineation of managerial functions. A distinction must be made between large companies which adopt western management techniques for international operations and small companies which exhibit indigenous management practices.

Organization Structure

As a general rule, Saudi companies tend to be patriarchal, owned and managed by a select group of male family members. The typical company structure is horizontal in nature rather than vertical as found in the U.S., reflecting the notion of egalitarianism. The job descriptions are flexible to accommodate the need for frequent cross-delegation of responsibility among managers. The American conception of bureaucracy begins with the organization and then recruits personnel to fit the design and functions of the organization. The American tends to accommodate executives to organizations; the Saudi tends to acommodate organizations to executives.

Organization vs Self

Because most American organizations of wide repute command prestige in the society, the individual employee is thereby claiming social esteem by identifying the self with the prestigeous organization. For instance in reply to the question, "What do you do?", "I am with Harvard University.", an American individual considers himself/herself subordinate to the organization. The Saudies, on the other hand, because of their emphasis on the person, consider the organization to be of secondary importance.

Planning - Fatalistic vs Futuristic

The Saudi approach to planning is ad hoc and less systematic than in the U.S. The Saudi mentality is fatalistic, believing in predestination. That is, they believe that the affairs of the world, nations, organizations, individuals and all else have been worked out by God. Nothing can be done to alter fate. They find it futile to be concerned with the future for what is the use of thinking ahead when predicting the future and one's control of it appears impossible? Companies in Saudi Arabia generally plan with the objective of establishing self sufficiency in operations through carefully anticipating future needs, reducing their dependence on unreliable suppliers, and limiting future long term agreements. This provides a glaring difference with the American approach to planning which is futuristic, employing sophisticated planning techniques.

Staffing Policies

In contrast to the American approach to hiring, which is generally based on objective employment criteria - candidates' academic qualifications and work experience, the Saudi businessman usually hires on the basis of affiliation, friendship and the right social origin. Local personnel managers are prone to fill the best jobs with family members regardless of their qualifications. Since business success in Saudi Arabia depends heavily upon personal influence and his ability to develop new contacts. This characteristic of staffing emphasizes the importance of skills in interpersonal relations relative to technical competence.

a) Personnel Evaluation

The evaluation of the job performance of an American employee by his manager would tend to affect the likelihood of success or failure of the subordinate in the corporate structure. The emphasis here is primarily on job performance, not the personality of the subordinate. An employee is a net asset or a net liability to the organization, in the opinion of the manager, he gets promoted if an asset, but fired if a liability, not so in most cases in Saudi Arabia. Here considerations take place within a religious parameter. Firing somebody may not please God, he has to support his family. Companies often carry employees on the payroll who do not effectively contribute to the operation of the business. Thus, businesses are hindered in their attempts to achieve their full potential due to the effect of this indigenous management practice.

b) Promotion

A typical American subordinate expects his/her promotion and future with the organization to depend substantially on initiative and performance on the job. In Saudi Arabia on the other hand it is a system of interpersonal relationships extending from the lowest to the highest levels of the corporate structure which influence upward mobility. Here personal loyalty and good will over and above competence is valued more by the executive for promotion.

Leading

a) Top Management Decision Making

Decision making in Saudi Arabia is centralized in those influential top managers who have learned the trust and respect of the extended family.

Consideration of changes to be made is initiated by the key managers, but prior consultation with important family members is a necessary aspect of decision making. This process of developing a consensus before making a final decision creates an atmosphere of open communications, but it slows down the decision making process. The traditional respect for elders and those in positions of responsibility, deriving from the tribal tradition, returns the implementation of finalized decision to those in authority. It should be noted that while initiation of change and implementation of decisions is in the hands of a few, a consensus must be developed among important family members in the company. This requirement of a consensus creates a sense of commitment among company managers which aids implementation of change.

b) Leadership Styles

In Saudi Arabia the executives are reluctant to relinquish their authority. The leadership is highly authoritarian. The Arabs, because of their Bedouin origins, believe that corporate entities need strong leaders who are willing to force their wills on their organization; consequently, even insignificant matters are often pushed up the organization by the personnel for top level decisions. Rarely would the employees initiate any activities. American leadership on the other hand allows middle management greater authority and in return expects accountability. American employees and managers tend to be comparatively more action oriented because of this delegation of authority.

c) Motivation

The carrot and stick philosophy that motivates many employees in the U.S. fails in Saudi Arabia. Direct exertions of authority offend traditional notions of self-respect and threats (to employees) by superiors are actually counterproductive to properly motivate a Saudi employee. Criticism, constructive or otherwise, is not at all appreciated. You can be pushy in the U.S. and get results. In Saudi Arabia if you push, you get just the opposite. To motivate a Saudi employee, a manager appeals to the employee's ego and sense of pride. This is done by offering incentives which provide the opportunity for the employee to receive social recognition from the peers.

Controlling

Most companies in Saudi Arabia have informal control mechanisms like routine checks on performance. A central problem in this respect is that there is no personal shame for failing to perform up to industrial standards. In the U.S. there are fairly advanced controlled systems focusing on cost reduction and organizational efficiency.

Conclusion

The successful conduct of business in Saudi Arabia requires attitudes and skills significantly different from those needed to operate in the U.S.A. An American executive who is convinced that his successful managerial practices can be implemented intact in Saudi Arabia with the same level of success may become disappointed. There are distinct societal differences that turn winning practices into failures in another. Through awareness of such differences the American executives of international and multinational firms can develop more imaginative and effective approaches to management policies and strategies in Saudi Arabia.

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FINANCIAL PRACTICES OF JAPANESE MULTINATIONALS
A COMPARISON WITH U. S. PRACTICES

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FINANCIAL PRACTICES OF JAPANESE MULTINATIONALS: A COMPARISON WITH U. S. PRACTICES

The postwar growth of the Japanese economy has been fueled primarily due to the growth of the large multinational trading companies, sometimes called "sogoshoshas." While the Japanese industrial producers still remain home-based, the momentum of overseas investments is accelerating at a staggering pace. Projections by the Japan Economic Research Center indicate total worldwide investment may rise to $155 billion by 1990.[1]

The surge in the Japanese foreign investment signifies a change in financial strategy for the Japanese multinationals. In a sense, the sogoshoshas are beginning to emulate their large American multinational competitors; such as American Telephone and Telegraph, IBM, and General Motors. However, the characteristics of the Japanese multinationals are quite different from their U.S. counterparts. The Japanese multinationals evolved from family owned businesses. De facto pricing fixing is allowed and at times even encouraged. Arms lengths transactions are the exceptions not the rules. Such practices in the U.S. would often be in violation of various monopoly laws. The Japanese banking system is heavily involved in business matters. Typically, Japanese banks hold large equity positions of public corporations. Among major stockholders of Toyota, for example, four banks hold over 11% of outstanding issues. Additionally, through existing short term agreements with their banks, virtually all companies roll over their short term debt every six months. This practice, in effect, provides a form of long term financing at short term rates.

This paper will attempt to present a comparative analysis of the financial structure and policies of major Japanese corporations vis-a-vis their U.S. counterparts. The paper does not address the situation in small Japanese companies, which seem to differ substantially from that in major corporations. While making such comparisons, one ought not to forget that there are also marked differences in the financial markets in Japan and that in the United States. Consumption and saving habits of households in the two countries also differ significantly. Japanese save an unusually large proportion of their disposal income which, in turn, becomes available for making global investments.[2] As a matter of fact, Japan has the highest personal savings rate of all the major industrialized countries: they stashed away 16% of their disposal income in 1986, compared to 4% for the U.S. That hoard provides funds for domestic expansion and contributes to the strong yen that has allowed Japanese corporations to buy foreign assets at bargain-basement prices.[3]

Through the Postal Savings System (PSS), the Japanese government has converted personal savings deposits into long-term capital for financing development, the private sector, and huge government deficits.[4] According to Nomura Research Institute, Japanese investors had about 294 trillion yen

($2.31 trillion) parked in tax-free savings alone as of March 31, 1987.[5] In addition, the Japanese financial system is marked by a comparatively high degree of regulation and control of private financial institutions by the monetary authorities and a very active government role in financial intermediation and credit allocation. Government intervention is a rule in Japanese society when intervention is deemed to be for the good of the society as a whole. Thus, government investment guarantees are common in Japan.

Financial Structure and Policies:

Japanese corporations have some striking differences in their financial structure and policies when compared with their U.S. counterparts. Some of these differences have evolved over time in response to differing financial and money markets, and legal environments in the two countries. With recent trends towards opening up of the Japanese financial markets to U.S. investment banking firms, it would be interesting to see how this might impact upon future Japanese financial policies. The following section highlights the key differences between Japanese and U.S. Corporate financial policies and structure:

1. High Degree of Financial Leverage:

It is frequently noted in academic and trade journals that Japanese corporations have an extraordinarily high amount of debt in their capital structures. By measures of financial soundness traditionally used in the U.S. and other Western countries; the prevailing risk exposure in Japanese business finance is almost inconceivable. It is common, for example, for borrowed funds to exceed owners' equity by a multiple of five or six times.[6] Moreover, for Japanese firms, short-term borrowings play a dominant role as a percentage of total borrowings. In a study of 573 largest publicly held Japanese industrial firms for fiscal year 1979, Sarathy and Chatterjee found that Japanese short-term borrowing amounted to 45.4 percent; while the parallel amount for the U.S. was only 16.9 percent, or a ratio of over 2.5 times to one.[7]

The Nature of Financial Risk:

One would wonder how Japanese firms are able to sustain such high degrees of financial leverage without increasing financial risk to unacceptable levels; especially when examined from U.S. financial analysts' view points. Several observations are in order:

(a) Closer Relationship Between Banks and Corporations:

The intimate relationships between banks and Japanese firms allows companies to safely maintain such high degrees of financial leverage that would be virtually unthinkable in the U.S. In situations of financial adversities, the Japanese firm can rely on its bankers. The lead bank may help directly, or it can help indirectly, by arranging loans from other banks. Generally, one of the numerous banks from which Japanese firms borrow is regarded as the "main" bank. This relationship yields an extra ordinary amount of power to the bank. The bank, in effect, exercises a tacit veto power over the financial decisions of the firm and it may even place its own executives directly into the senior management of the firm. In return, the main bank assumes a greater responsibility towards the firm. The bank, in effect, guarantees the long-term viability of the company by continuing to provide financing in times of adversity or even, in extreme situations, by engineering a merger or takeover by another firm.[8]

(b) Intimate Relationships with Other Firms:

Unlike in the U.S., a Japanese firm is seldom viewed as an independent financial entity. A Japanese firm is an integral part of other companies belonging to a particular industrial group. Firm that are customers or suppliers within the group can help by promoting sales of the product, by paying their bills more promptly or by postponing their demand for payment, by discriminating pricing, or even by providing management assistance. While the Japanese company may be independent in a legal sense, its financial risk situation is more closely akin to a corporate division of a highly diversified conglomerate.[9]

(c) Reserves for Income Smoothing:

Japanese tax laws allow establishment of tax-deductible reserves up to a limit of 25 percent of the par value of the capital stock.[10] These reserves can be drawn upon during times of adversity. Examples of such reserves may include reserves for bad-debts, inventory price fluctuations, overseas market development, exchange rate fluctuations, the structural improvement of small enterprises and so on. These reserves provide sufficient buffers against lean years so that the owners' equity can be maintained without being affected from short-run market fluctuations.

2. Lower Levels of Net Working Capital:

Japanese corporations typically have lower levels of net working capital (current assets-current liabilities) compared to the U.S. corporations. In the above cited study of 573 largest publicly held Japanese industrial corporations by Sarathy and Chatterjee, it was found that the Japanese working capital levels were almost one-half the levels of the U.S. firms when measured in terms of the percentage of total assets: 12 percent in Japan versus 25.6 percent in the U.S.[11] However, it should be noted that the same study found that the Japanese firms, on average, retained about 2.5 times as much cash as their U.S. counterparts (18.4 percent versus 7.4 percent of assets) and also held higher levels of notes and accounts receivables (27.6 percent versus 19.8 percent). The inventory levels were lower, about three-quarter of the U.S. levels (17.3 percent versus 22.9 percent); and overall, Japanese current assets were higher than U.S. levels by about 30 percent (66.4 percent versus 51.8 percent).

On the liability side of the balance sheets, it is interesting to note that accounts payable proportions were just about equal for the Japanese and American firms. It is the dramatic difference in the levels of short-term debts between the two countries which explains the lower levels of net working capital for Japanese corporations. The study found that the Japanese short-term borrowings amounted to 45.4 percent, as compared to only 16.9 percent for the U.S. firms; or a ratio of over 2.5 to one. This phenomenon explains why Japanese total current liabilities were more than twice as high as the U.S. (54 percent versus 26.6 percent); and yet Japanese net working capital was less than half of U.S. net working capital levels.[12]

3. Equity Financing:

In Japan, common stock is closely held and the trading, in effect, is restricted to a relatively small fraction of the potentially available shares. Bulk of the shares (almost three-quarter) are held by institutions who do very little trading. Their primary aim is to maintain or enhance business relationships with the companies whose shares they own. Most of the institutional shareholding follow a practice of cross-holding which acts as a barrier to hostile takeovers and mergers by ensuring that a blocking percentage is in friendly hands.[13]

Dividend payments on common stock are small and based upon their par values. Dividends are considered to be an obligation of the company. Banks often allow interest and principal payments on short-term debt to be deferred so that dividends can be paid. Moreover, the stockholders usually exercise negligible influence on management. Thus, common stock can be considered almost a debt issue from the perspectives of U.S. financial standards.

Japanese equities sell at a much higher price/earnings multiples than their U.S. counterparts. A recent study, published by Drexel Burnham investment firm, compared the price/earnings multiples of the various national indices. It used the data on prices as of the end of February 1988 and estimated earnings for 1987 and 1988. The results of the study are eye-openers: In Australia, for example, stocks are selling at 11.6 times '87 earnings, 10.6 times '88 estimated earnings. The respective P/Es for Canada are 12.8 and 11.4; For France, 11 and 10; for Germany, 9.9 and 9.6; for Hong Kong, 12.5 and 11; for Britain, 13.1 and 11.7; for the U.S., 15.1 and 13.4; and, for Japan: 56.3 and 51.7.[14]

Concluding Remarks:

As noted in the paper, there are substantial differences between the financial practices and policies of Japanese firms vis-a-vis their U.S. counterparts. The differences are primarily attributable to the differences in their financial environments and historical practices.

When one analyses these differences using somewhat different yardsticks, the distinctions may not seem to be so striking as one is led to believe by merely looking at the published statistics. For example, when one examines the situation regarding higher degree of financial leverage by using market value data (as opposed to the book value data), the difference between the U.S. and Japan does not seem to be so pronounced. In a comparative study by Allen Michel and Israel Shaked, it was found that based on the relative ranks of the capitalization ratios for a given year there was no appreciable difference in leverage between the Japanese and U.S. samples when market value capitalization ratios, rather than book value figures, were used.[15]

Nonetheless, the financial structure and practices of Japanese firms have substantially differed from that of the U.S. firms. This is primarily the result of differing financial environments in which the respective firms exist and grow. As a matter of fact, the way firms have evolved in response to their differing environments provide a testimonial to the flexibility of their financial structure and policies. The willingness and ability of Japanese firms to borrow heavily was crucial to funding their rapid growth during the 1950s and 60s. The key to such borrowings has been the main bank lending system. That system represents an ingenious mechanism for reducing lending risks to highly levered borrowers.[16] However, it remains to be seen how Japanese corporations will change their financial structure and policies as their financial markets become increasingly globally oriented.

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Assessing the Importance of Second Language Competence: An Analysis of Expatriate Managers in Taiwan

by

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Assessing the Importance of Second Language Compentence: An Analysis of Expatriate Managers in Taiwan

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Introduction

The use of more than one language in multinational corporations compounds the communication problem. Although English is a universal language, the study reported in this paper shows that foreign expatriates with second language competence, even limited proficiency, win rapport with their subordinates and are able to communicate more effectively and completely.

The conclusions presented in this paper are based on an analysis of communication patterns among eleven foreign expatriates and 75 Chinese managers with different levels of second language competencies: low, low-intermediate, high-intermediate, and advanced. The paper addresses: (a) how foreign expatriates assess the importance of second language competence, (b) how Chinese local managers assess the importance of foreign expatriates knowing a second language, and (c) how communication is affected by relative levels of competencies in second languages (Chinese and English) and by cultural differences between expatriate and Chinese managers.

Research Method

The data for this paper was collected in the summers of 1986 and 1987. Data were gathered from 14 multinational corporations operating in Taiwan. Of 14 companies, seven are joint-ventures or subsidiaries of foreign companies, seven are domestic enterprises having import-export international business. These enterprises ranged from a domestic consulting firm to a producer of high-tech products with thousands of employees worldwide. Most are large firms with recognizable names in variety of industries: chemical products, high-tech, banking, consumer products, civil engineering, manafacturing of auto and home appliance, health-and medical-care products, sports, television and advertising agency. These firms were not selected randomly, but instead consisted of those which consented to participate in the study within the time parameters available.

Personnel from various organizational levels were interviewed- from CEOs' to first-level managers. The sections of interviews which are most relevant to this paper focus on: (a) the self-assessment of immportance of second language competence of foreign expatriates, (b) the viewpoints of local managers assessing the importance of foreign expatriates knowing a second language, (c) the communication effectiveness of foreign expatriates and overseas Chinese expatriates, and (d) the ways of solving miscommunication and communicating more effectively.

Results of the Study

The results of the study are organized according to the expatriate managers' competency levels in spoken Mandarin. There were the following four groups: Group A-- non-or limited second-language competency (proficiency level is 0+1 - 0+2 on FSI scales). Group B-- low-intermediate (1+0 - 1+3 or 2+1), Group C- high-intermediate (2+3 - 3+4), and Group D- advanced or near native-like (4+...). Exhibit 1 summarizes the factors which promoted effective communication as well as those factors which inhibited effective communication for the expatriate managers. The data in the exhibit is organized according to the second language competency levels of the expatriate managers. In the folloing paragraphs, there is a addition elaboration on these groups of expatriate managers.

Group A: Foreign expatriates with Low level of second language compentence. For those low level of second language competence of foreign expatriates, their proficiency levels are 0+1- 0+2, according to Foreign Service Institute (FSI) rating scales. In other words, these expatriates may know a few isolated words and phrases, but have no practical knowledge of the spoken Chinese language. For this group of foreign expatriates, using a second language to communicate with subordinates in the host country is not possible. The communication problems may be compounded if the local managers personnel do not possess a good command of English. In this condition, communication becomes one-way and the messages have been filtered. An expatriate said, " The information that I got is always the 'final product'..., but what I want is the raw information.... I want to know the process, not just their final decision."

Although the limited second language proficiency may hinder the efficiency of communication, these foreign expatriates, however, develop their way of compensting for the second inaguage deficiencies. According to expatriates, in meetings with Chinese subordinate managers, they would use chalkboards to write down the key words, or numbers of amount. In addition, these managers follow up meetings with memos summarizing conclusions and instructions. Some expatriates also rely on the Chinese subordinates with higher English proficiency to serve as a "bridge" between foreign expatriates and the subordinates with low-level English proficiency. Another way these managers solve the communication problem was to carefully select good secretaries. A good secretary will provide information for the boss and protect the boss from making mistakes.

Group B: Foreign expatriates with low-intermediate level of second language competence. The second language proficiency of this group of expatriates falls on 1+0- 1+3 or 2+1. The expatriates may be able to use greetings, ordinary social expressions, and limited vocabulary for office requirements, such as Chinese names of products, product descriptions, and some key words in the meetings. Although this group of foreign expatriates were not able to conduct meetings in a second language; yet, they surely won good rapport of the local managers, especially those Chinese personnel who possess the limited English proficiency.

Group C: Foreign expatriates with high-intermediate level of second language competence. The second language proficiency of this group of expatriates ranged from 2+3-3+4. In other words, these foreign expatriates have sufficient control of the structure of the language and adequate vocabulary to handle presentation requirements and professional discussions with one or more special field, but are not as fluent as native speakers. This group of foreign expatriates have advantages in communicating with their subordinates; they can use both language (Chinese and English) in the communication process.

Group D: Foreign expatriates with high level of second language proficiency. The last group was composed overseas Chinese foreign expatriates. These expatriates possess native-like proficiency levels in both Chinese and English. The advantages of overseas Chinese foreign expatriates are (a) the familarity with both the overseas and the Chinese cultures, (b) the possibly more complete communication because of knowing both languages. Knowing both cultures is conducive to the communication, especially regarding subtleties and delicate matters.. These managers can benefit from understanding the high-context nature of Chinese culture and avoid miscommunication because of the difference in communication styles between two different cultures. By knowing two languages, these expatriates do benefit from both upward communication from Chinese subordinates and downward communication to these personnel. However, the disadvantages of these overseas Chinese expatriates are that (a) Local subodinates expect more of them than they do of English-speaking foreign expatriates, and (b) These overseas Chinese expatriates may be overconfident about themselves. That is, because they are not completely integrated in the local Chinese culture, these expatriates Chinese managers still may experience cultural differences from the Taiwanese Chinese.

Besides interviewing eleven foreign expatriates, seventy-five Chinese individuals were interviewed. They were asked about their viewpoints of foreign expatriates knowing a second language and about communicating with expatriate managers. The results were quite varied: The responses depended on the English proficiency levels of the Chinese personnel. For those Chinese personnel with high-intermediate and advanced levels of English proficiency, they do not mind that much whether the foreign expatriates can speak Chinese or not; however, they all agree that knowing a minimally survival Chinese is conducive to the expatriates in the social context. As for the Chinese personnel with low to low-intermediate level of English proficiency, these personnel stated that having expatriates possess a second language competency in Chinese will help communication.

Regardless of the English proficiency levels of Chinese personnel, all Chinese personnel agree that (a) there are disadvantages and difficulties in using a second language (English) to express their ideas; that is, concepts are easier to be understood in Chinese, (b) The Chinese individuals find it easier to communicate with Chinese-born American expatriates because they can switch from English to Chinese when they find it difficult to express the concepts in English, and (c) the Chinese personnel were appreciateive if expatriate managers have even a minimal competence in spoken Chinese. But knowing a little bit of language does not help the expatriate managers in task-related communication.

Conclusions

The major conclusions of the study are summarized as follows: (a) proficiency in second language is becoming increasingly important, (b) elementary second language (Chinese) competency is of significant importance for expatriate managers, (c) intermediate second language competence (Chinese) does not aid expatriate managers in on-the-job communication (except for listening in some group situations, as an aid in understanding Chinese culture, and in off the job situations), (d) expatriate managers fluent in both Chinese and English experienced the highest communication effectiveness and (e) expatriate managers with limited second language proficiency but with an appreciation and/or understanding of Chinese culture were better able to compensate for their second language limitations. So, the significant payoffs in learning a second language comes at both ends of a continuum with fewer benefits accuring in the middle. The practical significance of this finding is that an expatriate manager is likely to become discouraged while acquiring intermediate level competency. At the intermediate language levels, the expatriate manager in a Chinese environment is not able to effectively apply his or her newly acquired lnaguage competency in most on-the-job situations. English remains the medium of communication as Chinese individuals can receive more complete and accurate messages in the expatriate managers' native language (English) than in their incompletely acquired second language (Chinese). In addition, the expatriate managers are not prepared to receive messages in advanced or native Chinese. But there always is a positive benefit for increasing second language proficiency, but these benefits vary in size and are less visible at the middle compentency levels. The less visible benefit at the intermediate levels is that the expatriate managers are gradually learning to pick up more cues and increasingly able to make sense of the cultural environment. And as proficiency increases, the expatriate manager is able to piece together and interprete the conversations of Chinese colleagues.

Factors that promote and inhibit the effectiveness of foreign expatriates in communicating with Taiwanese individuals

category	proficiency level	factors promoting coomunication	factors inhibiting communication
Group A	non or limited (0+1 - 0+2)	1. Actual or perceive better understanding of upper level/headquarter's policy and instructions; possible broader and more accurate message content to communicate	1. Limited second language competence; cannot communicate concepts and ideas
		2. Subordinates listen more intently if superior show empathy.	2. Unaware of cultural cues and customs.
		3. Personal secretaries assume greater role in both communication and decision making process; i.e., shows importance of selecting a competent assistant.	
		4. More use of non-verbal communication to compensate for language deficiency.	
Group B	low-intermediate (1+0 - 1+3 Or 2+1)	1. Chinese individuals appreciate effort to learn Mandarin (binding of relationship)	1. Chinese prefer better English than low level Chinese.
		2. Language learning spill-over to cultural understanding	2. Difficult to use Chinese in a work-related situation
		3. Some understanding of Chinese language conversations	
Group C	high-intermediate (2+3 - 3+4)	1. Ability to carry on some conversations without a loss of meaning.	1. Unfamilarity with cultural context limits complete understanding (sometimes)
		2. Ability to interject Chinese words/expressions/ sayings to expand meaning in an English language conversation or presentation.	2. Second language vocabulary not complete enough to fully communicate
		3. Evidence of strong and lasting commitment to relationships with Chinese community.	
Group D	(native/ 4+..)	1. Ability to communicate in a "normal" conversational manner	1. Subtle communication still may be missed or misunderstood
		2. understanding of both the Chinese and foreign culture	2. Higher expectations as these individuals still are outside the culture

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PRESENTATION LENGTH (15 - 20 MINUTES)

AUDIENCE - ACCOUNTING EDUCATORS AND/OR PROFESSIONALS

ABSTRACT

This paper addresses the primary differences between staffing requirements of international internal audit departments and domestic audit departments. These differences result from the diversity of environmental factors encountered internationally. Although multinational enterprises often attempt to standardize their operating control environments world-wide, there are external factors which cannot be controlled.

Some of the external factors affecting international internal auditors which are discussed in this paper are: culture, communications, travel requirements, diversity of international operations, and economic issues. These factors provide additional stimuli to the auditors' working and social environments.

In additional to the new environmental factors that international internal auditors must face, these auditors must also face a changing array of factors as they travel from one location to another location. This paper argues that the successful and satisfied international internal auditor must have a high degree of flexibility in comparison to his domestic counterpart. Other favorable attributes of the international internal auditor are also discussed in this paper.

In conclusion, all effective and efficient domestic internal auditors do not make effective and efficient international auditors. Staffing requirements should be different for the two departments. Management should be aware of the additional difficulties that international internal auditors must handle and staff the positions accordingly.

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STAFFING THE MULTINATIONAL ENTERPRISE

THE PROBLEM OF ESTABLISHING THE QUALIFICATIONS FOR THE INERNATIONAL MANAGER

BY:
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SEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS

SEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS

AND THE PROFESSIONS

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IN COOPERATION WITH THE DIVISION OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

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Eastern Michigan University
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STAFFING THE MULTINATIONAL ENTERPRISE

PROBLEMS IN ESTABLISHING THE QUALIFICATIONS FOR THE INTERNATIONAL MANAGER

I. NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STAFFING PROBLEM IN THE MULTINATIONAL ENTERPRISE

A. NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

The staffing function of management in the international enterprise is the function that is mainly concerned with the securing of executive succession under varying environmental constraints in an increasingly expanding world business. Environmental and market constraints demand refinements in the establishment of managerial qualifications for foreign assignments. These demands translate into educational requirements which constitute both challenges and opportunities for the educational institutions of our time.

B. SIGNIFICANCE

1. Micro-economic Significance.
2. Macroeconomic Significance.

II. THE ANATOMY OF THE STAFFING PROBLEM IN THE INTERNATIONAL ENTERPRISE

A. STRUCTURAL CONSIDERATIONS

1. Problems with the Procurement Stage
2. Problems with the maintainance State

B. KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF PROBLEMS IN THE PROCUREMENT STAGE

1. Establishing the Characteristics of successful expatriate managers
   a. knowledgeable
   b. Comprehend and understand people and situations
   c. Experts and pragmatic in their field
   d. Good analytical minds
   e. Love for the "big Picture."

B. KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF PROBLEMS IN THE PROCUREMENT STAGE (CONTINUED)

2. Abilities of Successful Expatriate Managers

a. Empirical abilities
i. Ability to cause or control events in problem situations
ii. Ability to state and measure clearly the quantititave dimensions of the business plan.

b. Logical abilities

i. Predisposition for truth suitably modified to fit people and situations
ii. Consistent use of reasoning from from well searched premises to conclusions within the framework of the company established policy.

c. Action Abilities

i. Ability to change things:action that have results
ii. Ability to act timely
iii. Ability to judge and evaluate people and situations
iv. Ability to incorporate into action plans whatever new study and experience provides.
vi. Ability to know when values get mixed up with facts and thus secure objectivity of decisions.

C. RELATIONSHIPS

1. Competitiveness--Company
2. Competiveness--The economy, e.g. balance of payments problems.
3. Educational programing

III. THE MANAGERIAL QUALIFICATIONS IN A CAUSE-EFFECT FRAMEWORK

A. SELECTION OF QUALIFIED PERSONNEL

1. Managerial and Organizational performance
2. Growth and Expansion

B. FACTORS AFFECTING EFFECTIVENESS OF SELECTION PROCESSES

1. Internal to the firm factors
2. Factors external to the firm
a. Ignorance of the soicultural clusters of the world
b. The type of headquarter orientation:Ethnocentric, Polycentric, Geocentric.
c. Lack of understanding the complexity of the world economic and monetary order.

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IV. PROBLEMS AT THE EMPIRICAL LEVEL OF CONSIDERATION

A. THE TIME DIMENSION OF PROBLEMS OF PROCURING HUMAN RESOURCES FOR INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENTS

1. Lack of Consistency Between Strategic Planning and Strategic Planning for Human resources.
2. The Process of Strategic Planning misses the Ends-Means Linkage

B. LABOR MARKET PROBLEMS

1. Domestic Labor market
2. Host Country Labor market
3. Third Country Labor market
4. All-Countries Labor markets:Foregn students

C. CURRENT STATE

1. Problems on the demand side of the market
2. Problems on the supply side of the Market

V. PROPOSED SOLUTIONS

1. The role of the company programs
2. The role of Educational(higher Education) Programs

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MARKETING ACROSS CULTURES: TOOLS FOR CULTURAL ASSESSMENT

by

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MARKETING ACROSS CULTURES: TOOLS FOR CULTURAL ASSESSMENT

By Barney T. Raffield, III

Introduction

Interpreting the impact of culture upon a group is always a very difficult challenge, as culture is both ubiquitous and subtle in nature. One's own enculturation often obscures his or her understanding of other cultures; and almost inevitably, one tends to see other cultures only in terms of their similarities to, and differences from, his or her own culture. This phenomenon is known as "self-reference criterion" (Lee 1966). Individuals most often use their own culture as a primary frame of reference; and, consequently, it is extremely rare that they are able to use objectivity in either studying or evaluating the substance of other cultures. Therefore, where should an international marketer begin to assess any particular culture?

Boundaries of and Limits to Cultural Assessment

Whenever any firm is considering the marketing of products or services to international market segments, the firm's marketing personnel should be aware that cultural differences stand out more frequently than cultural similarities. Any nation's culture serves as a primary means by which members of that culture solve both routine and complex problems, and learn to cope effectively with their environment. Products and services must address consumer needs and solve purchasing problems if they are to be viable and successful in either domestic or international markets. A marketer must ascertain whether a particular product or service fills a recognized and appropriate consumer need within a specific foreign culture. If the product or service does, then the cultural differences between the domestic firm's culture and that of the particular foreign market are not as relevant as is the similarity of consumer needs between one culture and another.

In assessing cultural impact within an international market, the multinational marketer must realize that a number of barriers must be overcome. One major barrier is the aforementioned tendency for a marketer from one culture to interpret another culture using "selective perception," or more simply stated, using his or her own culture as the only frame of reference. A second barrier is that while cultural similarities most often capture the attention of the international marketer, it is frequently cultural differences that provide the "fly in the ointment" to the success of products and services marketed in other cultures. Exhibit 1 shows some "cultural universals" in an effort to point out that people throughout the world do have many similar needs, although cultural differences can be very marked. Finally, culture is inculcated, and is, therefore, learned. There can be wide variations within a single culture which are as equally critical as the importance of similarities and differences between cultures in assessing the impact of a nation's cultural environment on the tastes, preferences, and trends of its consumers.

Tools for Cultural Assessment

Unfortunately, many firms, particularly those which are small in size or entering international markets for the first time, do not have the economic resources, the time, nor the required expertise to assess patterns of cultural influence in international markets. Are any shortcut methods available which would assist the international marketer in forecasting the cultural impact on the demand for goods and services in a particular foreign market? Although certainly not a "quick-fix" method, the analysis offered by Edward T. Hall can

Exhibit 1

Cultural Universals

- Age grading
- Athletic sports
- Bodily adornment
- Calendars
- Cleanliness training
- Community organization
- Cooking
- Cooperative labor
- Cosmology
- Courtship
- Dancing
- Decorative arts
- Divination
- Division of labor
- Dream interpretation
- Education
- Eschatology
- Ethics
- Ethnobotany
- Etiquette
- Faith healing
- Family
- Feasting
- Fire making
- Folklore
- Food taboos
- Funeral rites
- Games
- Gestures
- Gift giving
- Government
- Greetings
- Hair styles
- Hospitality
- Housing hygiene
- Incest taboos
- Inheritance rules
- Joking
- Kin groups
- Kinship nomenclature
- Language
- Law
- Luck superstitions
- Magic
- Marriage
- Mealtimes
- Medicine
- Modesty concerning natural functions
- Mourning
- Music
- Mythology
- Numerals
- Obstetrics
- Penal sanctions
- Personal names
- Population policy
- Postnatal care
- Pregnancy usages
- Property rights
- Propitiation of supernatural beings
- Puberty customs
- Religious rituals
- Residence rules
- Sexual restrictions
- Soul concepts
- Status differentiation
- Surgery
- Tool making
- Trade
- Visiting
- Weaning
- Weather control

Source: George P. Murdock, "The Common Denominator of Cultures." *The Science of Man in the World Crises*. Ralph Linton (ed.). New York: Columbia University Press. 1945. pp. 123-142.

provides a means whereby such a cultural impact can be studied. Hall's basic premise for understanding culture is that it consists of systems for structuring the interaction within a society. Interaction can be person with person, person with things, person with environment, resident with outsiders, man with woman, etc. Hall has organized his perspective of culture into a framework which identifies "primary message systems," or cultural rules for human activity. These primary message systems are provided in Exhibit 2.

The international marketer, through investigating each of the areas identified in Exhibit 2, can better divorce himself or herself from self-reference criterion and more easily analyze and understand the varied complexities and intricacies of other cultures. Such an analysis is more appropriate for a more broad-based cultural understanding, and very often marketers do not need to engage in such an in-depth analytical exercise; rather, they need to ascertain the cultural impact upon their own specific issues: demand or use of a product, influences in the purchase decision, organization structure, relations with employees, etc. For this type of analysis, Hall believes that we should investigate the "intersection" of message systems (Hall 1959). For example, if marketers wish to understand how a particular culture shapes an individual's attitudes toward work, they must first understand that work messages are associated with each of the other message systems. How do people interact in work situations? What work roles are reserved for instructing others? Each message has an intersection with each other one. For instance, subsistence impacts on learning, and learning impacts on subsistence messages (Cundiff and Hilger 1984).

In applying such an analysis to specific business purposes, all that is necessary is to choose a message system with which to begin. A toy

Exhibit 2

The Primary Message System of Edward Hall's Silent Language

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1. **Interaction**. The interaction within the environment through different modes, such as speech and writing.
2. **Association**. The structure and organization of society and its various components.
3. **Subsistence**. The perspectives of activities of individuals and groups which deal with livelihood and living.
4. **Bisexuality**. The differentiation of roles and functions along gender lines
5. **Territoriality**. The possession, use, and defense of land and territory
6. **Temporality**. The division and allocation of time and its use for various activities.
7. **Learning**. The patterns of transmitting knowledge.
8. **Play**. The process of enjoyment through relaxation and recreation
9. **Defense**. The protection against natural and human forces in the environment.
10. **Exploitation**. The application of skills and technology to turn natural resources to people's needs.

Source: Edward T. Hall. *The Silent Language*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday Publishing, 1959, pp. 61-81.

manufacturer might choose to study the interaction of "play" with other message systems; cosmetic marketers might use the "bisexuality" message system; and a chemical firm might use the "exploitation" system message system to study its impact within the culture on use of, and demand for, its products. An example of the framework for such an analysis for the toy manufacturer might look like Exhibit 3 (Cundiff and Hilger 1984).

Hall's framework for cultural analysis is only one method to use in a cultural evaluation. An assessment of a particular nation's culture for marketing purposes also requires an analysis of the people's attitudes, motivations, perceptions, and learning processes (Jain 1987). Exhibit 4 more succinctly summarizes the cultural determinants. The information provided in this exhibit attempts to relate associate cultural traits with marketing decisions. For instance, simply knowing about the religion or morality of a culture is not sufficient in and of itself. The marketer must understand if the introduction of a particular product or service into another country will in any way, either directly or indirectly, conflict with the recognized cultural norms of that society. A careful scrutiny of major advertising themes and copy, with a strong understanding and appreciation of the particular culture in question, can be extremely helpful in preventing culturally related problems and blunders in marketing products and services to other nations.

Social scientists have used observation and fieldwork as the traditional means to study the cultural norms or values of any given society. International marketers have also found that these methods are quite appropriate for their needs in assessing the cultural impact of particular decisions in the marketing of goods and services in other nations. Observation involves the researcher being an active member of the culture for a

Exhibit 3

Business Applications of Edward Hall's Primary Message Systems

Intersections of Primary Message Systems	Sample Questions Concerning Cultural Patterns Significant for Marketing Toys and Games
Interaction/play	How do people interact during play in regard to competitiveness, instigation, or leadership?
Play/interaction	What games are played involving acting, role-playing, or other aspects of real-world interaction?
Association/play	Who organizes play, and how do the organization patterns differ?
Play/association	What games are played about organization; for example, team competitions and games involving kings, judges, or leader-developed rules and penalties?
Subsistence/play	What are the significant factors regarding people such as distributors, teachers, coaches, or publishers who make their livelihood from games?
Play/subsistence	What games are played about work roles in society such as doctors, nurses, and firemen?
Bisexuality/play	What are the significant differences between the sexes in the sports, games, and toys enjoyed?
Play/bisexuality	What games and toys involve bisexuality; for example, dolls, dressing up, and dancing?
Territoriality/play	Where are the games played, and what are the limits observed in houses, parks, streets, schools, etc.
Play/territoriality	What games are played about space and ownership? For example, monopoly?
Temporality/play	At what ages and what time periods are games played?
Play/temporality	What games are played involving time? Telling time?
Learning/play	What patterns of coaching, tuition, and training exist for learning games?
Play/learning	What games are played involving learning and knowledge? For example, quizzes?
Defense/play	What are the safety rules for games and toys?
Play/defense	What war and defense games and toys are utilized?
Exploitation/play	What resources and technology are permitted or utilized for games and sport; for example, hunting and fishing rules, use of parks, cameras, vehicles, etc.
Play/exploitation	What games and toys about technology or exploitation are used; for example, scouting, chemical sets, microscopes?

Source: Stefan H. Robock and Kenneth Simmonds, International Business and Multinational Enterprises, Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1983, p. 417

Exhibit 4

Outline of Cross-Cultural Analysis of Consumer Behavior

1. **Determine relevant motivations in the culture.**
   What needs are fulfilled with this product in the minds of members of the culture? How are these needs presently fulfilled? Do members of this culture readily recognize these needs?

2. **Determine characteristic behavior patterns.**
   What patterns are characteristic of purchasing behavior? What forms of division of labor exist within the family structure? How frequently are products of this type purchased? What size packages are normally purchased? Do any of these characteristic behaviors conflict with behavior expected for this product? How strongly ingrained are the behavior patterns which conflict with those needed for distribution of this product?

3. **Determine what broad cultural values are relevant to this product**
   Are their strong values about work, morality, religion, family relations, etc., which relate to this product? Does this product connote attributes which are in conflict with these cultural values? Can conflicts with values be avoided by changing the product? Are their positive values in this culture with which the product might be identified?

4. **Determine characteristic forms of decision-making.**
   Do members of the culture display a studied approach to decisions concerning innovations or an impulsive approach? What is the form of the decision process? Upon what information sources do members of the culture rely? Do members of the culture tend to be rigid or flexible in the acceptance of new ideas? What criteria do they use in evaluating alternatives?

5. **Evaluate promotion methods appropriate to the culture.**
   What role does advertising occupy in the culture? What themes, words, or illustrations are taboo? What language problems exist in present markets which cannot be translated into this culture? What types of salespeople are accepted by members of the culture? Are such salespeople available?

6. **Determine appropriate institutions for this product in the minds of consumers.**
   What types of retailers and intermediary institutions are available? What services do these institutions offer which are expected by the consumer? What alternatives are available for obtaining services needed for the product, but not offered by existing institutions? Will changes in the distribution structure be readily accepted?

Source: James F. Engel, Roger D. Blackwell, and David T. Kollat, *Consumer Behavior* (3d ed.), Hinsdale, IL: Dryden Press, 1978, p. 90

relatively lengthy periods of time in order to fully appreciate the patterns of living within that society. Fieldwork is concerned with collecting information relevant to particular areas of interest in the culture and does not require the researcher to become a real member of the culture itself. Of course, because of the time and financial constraints involved, most businesses will choose the fieldwork method rather than the observation method. One widely used method for assessing culture has been offered by Rokeach who developed a list of eighteen terminal and instrumental values (see Exhibit 5). His framework can be effectively utilized in discriminating among people of culturally diverse backgrounds (Munson and McIntyre 1978).

Conclusion

Cultural universals, basic needs shared in common by people throughout the world, are a critical concept in assessing the impact of culture on decisions of marketers as they relate to marketing goods and services in various international markets. In most cases international marketers have little need to understand all the ways in which their culture differs from others in which they wish to market their products. A basic outline of cultural differences can be created through analysis of a culture's primary message system. Yet, international marketing managers must select a critical message system and study how it intersects with others if he or she is to be able to ascertain the impact of culture on the use of, or demand for, their respective goods and services.

Marketing has always been recognized as an economic activity involving the exchange of goods and services for something of comparable value. However, socio-cultural influences have now been identified as highly important

Exhibit 5

Terminal and Instrumental Values

Terminal Value	Instrumental Value
A comfortable life (a prosperous life	Ambitious (hardworking, aspiring)
An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)	Broadminded (open-minded)
A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)	Capable (competent, effective)
A world at peace (free of war and conflict)	Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)
A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)	Clean (neat, tidy)
Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all	Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)
Family security (taking care of loved ones)	Forgiving (willing to pardon others)
Freedom (independence, free choice)	Helpful (working for the welfare of others)
Happiness (contentedness)	Honest (sincere, truthful)
Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)	Imaginative (daring, creative)
Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)	Independent (self-reliant)
National security (protection from attack)	Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)
Pleasure (enjoyable, leisurely life)	Logical (consistent, rational)
Salvation (saved, eternal life)	Loving (affectionate, tender)
Self-respect (self-esteem)	Obedient (dutiful, respectful)
Social recognition (respect, admiration)	Polite (courteous, well-mannered)
True friendship (close companionship)	Responsible (dependent, reliable)
Wisdom (a true understanding of life)	Self-controlled (self-disciplined)

Source: M. Rokeach, The Nature of Human Values, New York: Free Press, 197
p. 28.

determinants of marketing behavior (Terpstra 1987). Since the typical marketing manager's understanding of marketing is bounded by his or her culture, he or she must acquire a knowledge of diverse cultural environments in order to succeed in international marketing ventures. As world nations become more and more interdependent on each other, greater awareness and understanding of different cultures become increasingly more important in conducting world trade effectively.

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Marketing Opportunities in the Iberian Peninsula

by

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Marketing Opportunities in the Iberian Peninsula

For many years, the Iberian peninsula has been overlooked or ignored in the marketing efforts of most nations including the United States. Recent events, however, have exposed a window of opportunity that must not be ignored.

Of great importance is the entrance of Spain and Portugal into the European Common Market (now referred to as the European Community). That fact, along with other significant events, has created an important marketing opportunity in the Iberian peninsula.

The year 1992 is important to Europe—especially to Spain and Portugal. The European Community (EC) has set 1992 as the year of culmination of agreements and policies that will lead to the realization of a true "common" market—a unified family of 320 million consumers. These decisions will have a great impact on the relatively untapped markets in Spain and Portugal.

In 1992, Spain will celebrate its 500th anniversary of the colonization of the western hemisphere. Between now and 1992, Spain will be getting prepared for the Summer Olympics scheduled for that year in Barcelona. Plans include the paving or resurfacing of all major roads before the Olympics begin. American companies will be competing for the opportunity to sell the equipment to accomplish that task along with the additional rebuilding, refurbishing, and new construction projects that will accompany those preparations.

All these plans have important ramifications, both positive and negative, for United States companies. Standardization efforts to achieve the European

Community will be a major step in streamlining the manufacturing and marketing efforts of all companies competing for business in Europe. The new policies will greatly decrease the number of changes in design and manufacture of goods to meet the hodge-podge of requirements of the various countries. And, competition will certainly increase as the companies and industries of many countries vie for the new market opportunities.

These events and plans will have a significant impact on Iberia because of its recent entrance into the European Community. Having lagged behind the other countries in Europe, Spain and Portugal are now poised to move forward more rapidly as they close an economic gap.

Finally, the languages of the Iberian Peninsula should be considered in establishing marketing practices in this area. Language and cultural differences of the various regions within Iberia represent important factors to those individuals and companies expanding into this part of Europe.

STANDARDIZATION

In recent years, the European Common Market has tried to standardize but has not been successful. The additional unity achieved by the admission of Spain and Portugal seems to have given the impetus to suggest that such an objective is now achievable. The thrust toward standardization is acclaimed as one of the most significant events that will occur in Europe in the next 50 years.

Standardization will affect virtually every product from appliances and soft drinks to high-tech equipment. Even the legal forms used in customs regulation are being standardized and, by 1992, will vanish for all member nations. Delays caused by this red tape has added billions of dollars to the cost of transporting goods across Europe, accounting for as much as 30 percent of the time required to truck products from one country to another. By 1992, goods will move freely across Europe with a uniform document prepared at the point of origin.

Standardization is sorely needed. The present potpourri of product requirements includes almost everything from different sizes and shapes of electrical plug-ins for appliances in the different countries to a ban on soft drinks with sugar substitutes. The additional manufacturing and inventory costs to meet these present national standards are often in the millions of dollars within a single industry.

Mobile communications, auto emission standards, banking transactions and policies, and the uniform marketing of insurance are all affected by these efforts to standardize. The result is a simplification of efforts to market and transact business among these countries. IBM will change from its present practice of manufacturing only one product each at its 15 European plants—PC's in Scotland and mainframes in France—from where it ships them about the Continent at a far greater cost than will result from the standardization efforts taking place within the EC.

COMPETITION

The increased opportunities for sales, especially in the Iberian peninsula, also increase the competition. The United States companies will be competing not only with Japanese industry and other foreign business but also with the European Community itself. The unification of the Common Market will bond the European countries more firmly to each other. Such loyalty to family means that American companies must improve their efforts and their image to get their market share.

In addition to the family bonding is the economic advantage of buying from local markets. The decreased cost of transportation, the positive effect on employment, and the desire for a balance of trade are all factors that will encourage the purchase of locally produced goods and services.

American companies can offset this local competition by establishing their own offices and production plants in Europe, employing local labor, and producing goods from local raw materials. The advantages of such practices must be weighed against the economic advantages of producing such goods and services within the American marketplace for shipment to Europe.

IMPACT OF RECENT CHANGES ON IBERIA

In 1973, Spain got its first "super market." At that time, 90% of all markets were the "mom and pop" type. These kinds of markets now make up only 30% of the total number. This one example is typical of the manner in which Spain has modified its methods of distribution. These changes include an increasing emphasis on the importance of large retailers, a recognition of the need for franchising of many businesses, and a vertical integration of businesses throughout the various regions of Spain.

The economies of both Spain and Portugal have lagged behind those of the other countries making up the European Community. Poverty is still widespread, especially in Portugal; but conditions are changing. Portugal's economic growth for 1987 was between 4% and 5%, well above the average for the Western European nations. The rate of inflation has dropped from nearly 30% in 1984 to about 9% for 1987. Her foreign debt is similarly decreasing, and the country enjoys a balance-of-payments surplus. Portugal's unemployment rate is 7.3%—lowest of all the countries in the European Community except Luxembourg. This expanding economy has invited a strong upsurge in foreign investments including those by American mutual funds companies.

Politically, Portugal is showing some positive change also. The country is pleased to be recognized as a strong ally of America as evidenced by the recent offer to allow the United States to base its F-16 fighter planes on Portuguese soil. Recently the country offered to sell stock in a fibers manufacturing firm to its workers. This capitalistic approach was accepted eagerly by the workers with every share of the stock being sold in a very short time. The government is continuing with plans to privatize many nationalized companies. This plan includes the placing of up to 49% of the shares of some companies on the stock market. The companies to be selected will be those with a favorable profit history. Foreign participation will be restricted to 5% to allow Portuguese citizens to take advantage of this opportunity.

Workers throughout Portugal have fewer reasons to strike, and company profits are growing. Portugal is taking its place as a modern, Western power.

An important reason for Portugal's growth is its president, Mario Soares. He has been successful in reducing Communism and its effect on the country. He was a strong influence in leading Portugal into the Common Market and proudly states that his goal is to make Portugal a modern and progressive country.

Spain is progressing similarly, especially since coming into the European Community. Unemployment, though still high (20.3%), is declining rapidly; the economic growth rate is 3.3%; the trade deficit is rapidly declining; and inflation has slowed to 4.4% (1987 figures). As many Spanish companies are looking for foreign money for expansion and diversification, they become prime takeover targets for American investors. With entrance into the EC, domestic monopolies are eliminated and prices are coming down or at least not rising so fast.

The Madrid stock exchange was the fastest growing one in the West in 1987. While the United States' stock market grew by about 20% and Great Britain's by about 70%, Spain's market increased by a whopping 200% with only 300 companies on the exchange.

By numbers of visitors, Spain is the No. 1 tourist attraction in the world with over 30 million tourists annually. Of these, only one million are Americans. Income from tourism in 1985 made up 20% of Spain's balance of payments—higher than that for any other EC member country. Spain is especially eager to encourage Americans to visit. American tourists are attracted by monuments, beaches, and shopping; European tourists go only for the beaches. The difference in per capita spending makes America a highly sought after client.

Banks and insurance companies have sharpened their image and their marketing strategies. They are learning to compete to counter the assault of foreign competition. Here, too, the consolidation effort is evident. Seven large banks hold 80% of commercial bank deposits. And the banks are smartening their image through improved marketing strategies. Spain is itself investing in research and development in high-tech industries. With this is a new openness to foreign investments with large amounts of new foreign money coming into the system. They still recognize a great need for help from abroad in high-tech industries and are actively soliciting such help—again

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increasing opportunities for profitable ventures by American companies.

As with Portugal, Spain also is advancing politically. With the death of Franco in 1975, Spain is making a successful transition from a dictatorship to a democracy. Furthermore, Spain recognizes a strong need to present a favorable image for the 1992 Summer Olympics in Barcelona. This image building includes a well-thought-out courting of other nations that will open doors to numerous economic opportunities.

LANGUAGE

In spite of the many changes in the EC, some things will remain constant. The 12 nations will still use 12 different currency systems and be governed by their own customs. Furthermore, of special importance to anyone seeking to do business with the EC, these countries will still speak nine different official languages and at least two different regional languages.

These language differences are especially evident in the Iberian peninsula. Even though the peninsula includes only two countries, these two countries represent four languages. In addition to the official languages—Spanish and Portuguese—are the regional languages of the Basques and the Catalonians. Marketing efforts in Spain are affected by these two cultures and languages. Others expecting to establish economic ties there, should be aware of these differences.

Catalonia lies along the Mediterranean Sea in the extreme eastern end of Spain. It includes the city of Barcelona, the site for the 1992 Olympics. The regional language spoken there is Catalon which differs from the languages of the rest of Spain and other European countries. In addition to speaking Catalon, the Catalonians speak Spanish. This helps to alleviate many problems with the language barrier, but does not fully address the differences in culture and pride of uniqueness these people have retained.

The Basque region includes all or parts of seven provinces in the northeastern corner of Spain and extends into France. The Basque language has almost no resemblance to the Castellano spoken throughout most of Spain and is still spoken and preserved by most of the 3,000,000 Basques in that region. Most of the Basques speak Spanish (Castellano), but few of the Spanish speak Basque.

Many of the more progressive and successful companies in Spain are making a concentrated effort to cater to the Basque people, their culture, and language. This is evident in the advertising in newspapers and periodicals. Banks and insurance companies are finding great success with highly professional advertising practices that reach the Basque population.

The government of Spain has recognized the autonomy of Euzkadi, as the Basques call their "country," by supporting their selection of a president and a governing body. In 1985, Jose Antonio Ardanza Garro became President of Euzkadi and has since been instrumental in initiating and promoting a more positive image for the Basque region. In April 1988, President Ardanza made a trip to the United States—the first ever by a Basque president—to strengthen ties, promote trade, and to give assurance of continuing efforts to curb the terrorism that has stifled trade and progress in the Basque region. The violence has come from a group known as Euzkadi Askatasuna (ETA), which means "Basque Country and Freedom." ETA was formed in the 1950's as a proponent for Basque independence and received widespread support in its early history. The group fought the restrictions against the teaching of the Basque language and cultural activities. These restrictions have been lifted and the government is now making progress toward a disollution of ETA and an end to violence in that region.

In his visit to the United States, President Ardanza visited Boise State University and Boise, Idaho. The Boise area is home to more than 30,000 Basques—the largest population of Basques in the world outside Euzkadi. In his message to groups in this Basque center, he expressed a strong desire to promote Basque products (steel, clothing, wines, plastics, and firearms), and to purchase high technology, health and food services, and educational services in exchange.

The United States is in an enviable position to take advantage of the growing opportunities in the Iberian peninsula. We have established ties and a working relationship with a number of Latin American countries and the ability to communicate in Spanish is held by many of our people. We should be very careful, however, that we do not equate an ability to speak the language as an ability to understand the culture of the people. If we compare language and culture, we must come to the conclusion that a good understanding of culture is the more important.

Establishing marketing ties with Portugal requires more effort. We know relatively little about Portugal including the language. We are favored by a friendly political attitude toward the United States and Portugal's commitment to encourage trade with this country.

SUMMARY

As the European Community works toward achieving its far-reaching objectives during the next three to five years, United States business must be engaged to an even greater degree to establish itself as an economic part of that progress. Consolidation efforts, the search for foreign money, and the goal of standardization will lead to bigger and more powerful companies in Europe. Competition will be fierce, both from European and foreign business as multinational companies find that they can both manufacture and market more cheaply and simply.

Because of their recent entrance into the EC, Spain and Portugal present an even greater window of opportunity than do other countries in Europe. American business can be important partners with Iberian counterparts in the dynamic events that will affect this area. With an economy that has been relatively stifled for many years, Spain and Portugal are on the threshold of establishing themselves as powerful Western countries. Their growth will be a positive influence on others who take the right steps to participate in that growth. Careful attention to the languages and cultures of those we court will advance the achieving of that objective.

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ADS REFLECT THEIR CULTURE

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ADS REFLECT THEIR CULTURE

Students in business French classes often assume that advertising in a foreign country involves merely the translation of ads. If an ad works well in one country, why not just use it in other markets?

Some ads may be acceptable in foreign markets. Due to high costs of an ad campaign in each country, it is improbable that a completely different ad will be used firm's various markets.

If ads are used in more than one culture, care must be taken that they are both linguistically and culturally correct. Culture is a complex set of variable involving a group's beliefs and ways of living. It includes attitudes toward such concepts as time, space, material possessions, friendship, forms of agreement, aesthetics and language. (Edward T. Hall, Silent Language , Garden City, New Jersey, Doubleday, 1959.)

According to David Ricks, risks are high for using ads in other countries. Good ad themes are often culturally oriented. For example, an ad for canned fish in Québec depicted a woman in shorts golfing with her husband. The ad said that she could still make it home to serve a great dinner of canned fish. The promotion was unsuccessful for two reasons: A Québecoise would probably not be golfing in shorts. Secondly, she would not be likely to serve canned fish as a main course, regardless of time. (David A. Ricks, Big Business Blunders: Mistakes in Multi-national Marketing , Homewood, Ill., Dow Jones-Erwin, p. 64)

First let's examine some ads that reflect aspects of French culture that seem inappropriate for American culture. French ads for food are notably different. An ad for canned fish, for example, would stress serving it as an hors d'oeuvre or entrée, not as a main course. As a main course, the French would probably serve only fresh fish.

The tradition of the family seated around the dinner table eating together is often pictured in French magazine ads. By contrast, the American food ads emphasize speed and ease of preparation. They often show a casual meal. The family does what is convenient and doesn't necessarily eat together. Microwaved foods can be prepared for any member of the family, whenever he or she is ready to eat. One can make Suddenly Salad, two-minute turkey or ribs ready in ten minutes.

For the French, esthetic presentation is important. Is the ad artistic, innovative, pleasing? An artistic depiction of the product seems more important than its utility. This is especially true of prestige ads, for which the product and the brand name are already well known.

Shoes, for example, are shown in an artistic configuration rather than on feet, as one would expect in an American ad. Rather than a display of various record jackets for an American record ad listing all the titles available, a French example is a girl masking her face with a

FNAC record. (FNAC is a record, and book store).

In lieu of a prominent display of a the product package, colors and shapes of the product might be a part of a creative design for the ad. For example, there might be a woman in a surrealist painting sitting in front of a huge shape, like that of the perfume bottle. Other such shapes are found in the distance. Waves in the sand are like waves in the bottle.

In contrast, American ads tend to be direct, down to earth, and show a realistic use of the product. Its package is often prominently displayed.
The utility of American kitchen utensils is usually emphasized in American ads. Tupperware is advertised with pictures of it storing food. In France, Curver kitchen utensils are arranged in an abstract colorful design. The caption for the Le Creuset casserole dish is "la beauté se mange en cocotte. Il y a de l'utilité à etre beau)" (beauty is eaten from a casserole dish; there is utility in being beautiful).

French ads are often quite subtle; the product may not be pictured at all. A Salamander ad shows an empty deck on ship with some empty deck chairs. There are no shoes depicted anywhere. In small print it reads "L'automne a ses couleurs. L'automne a ses chaussures. (Autumn has its colors. Autumn has its shoes). A French person would be expected to know that Salamander is a brand of shoes.

Some typical themes found in French ads are: quality, tradition, subtlety sensuality and le bien-être. That is not to say that these themes are found only in French ads, but merely that they are quite common there. For example, Davi-Pèche frozen fish emphasizes is on quality. The fish was frozen fresh at sea. Notice that speed or ease of preparation are not mentioned, as one might expect in an American ad for a similar product. The French might be wary of a product that is very quick and easy. They might think that the quality is not high.

Sensuality is a theme often used in French ads. While nudity is generally not used in American magazines for women, it is not unusual in French ads for bath products, or skin creams. Sensual poses are not unusual for selling items such as shoes or yoghurt.

The preceding is not a scientific study of themes in ads but rather observations of a person who has lived in both the United States and France for an extended period of time. The ads do seem to reflect different values in the two countries: French ads are much more likely to emphasise quality, tradition, sublety, sensuality and esthetic presentation. American ads may occasionally show these themes, but they are much more likely to stress the quick, convenient, casual in a direct presentation with the product prominently displayed.

Since I am not a businesswoman, I cannot tell you exactly how to write an ad that will sell your product in France. What I can tell you is that, if you have a potential market in France or another foreign country, what you really need is local expertise. You need a person who knows not only all of the intricacies of the language, but also all of the unwritten rules and values of that society.

As a foreign language educator, I would be remiss if I did not tell you that the largest category of promotional blunders in international marketing is the result of faulty translation. (David Ricks, Big Business Blunders, p. 20). In non-English speaking countries, Ricks says that it is most useful to keep the ad message short and simple, to avoid jargon or slang, idioms, and humor.

In addition it is important to remember that even a correct translation of an ad is not enough. Multi-national corporations need the help of local culturally sensitive individuals who understand the implications of the ad. Only then can the company be sure that the product is being represented in a favorable way to the people of a given culture.

(This presentation was given with 36 slides at the conference. The slides were by necessity eliminated for the written portion of the paper.)

BUSINESS PERCEPTIONS OF NEED FOR PREPARATION TO FUNCTION SUCCESSFULLY IN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

This study is a survey of forty individuals in various business positions that relate to international business in Michigan. Respondents to a questionnaire described their perceptions of what type of preparation is necessary in order to function successfully either as an expatriate abroad or as one who works internationally from a home base in the United States. Results are similar to the literature in that functional expertise was considered to be primarily critical in contributing to performance. Language skills were rated second in importance for both individuals who must relocate abroad and those who interface internationally from the United States. A knowledge of cultural practices was considered much less important than knowledge of business practices in the foreign country and human relations skills.

Although seventy percent of the sample believed that an individual formally educated in business and foreign language skills would be a good job candidate for business, this primarily related to jobs in Marketing and Sales. It was the conclusion of the paper that foreign language skills and cultural knowledge may not be as valued as functional expertise by business because there is little or no documented evidence that these factors predict success internationally. Research efforts must be directed first toward an understanding of whether such preparation in foreign language and cultural knowledge predicts performance and then to examine how this knowledge is best acquired.

5

BUSINESS PERCEPTIONS OF NEED FOR PREPARATION TO FUNCTION SUCCESSFULLY IN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

INTRODUCTION

There is extensive literature available regarding the need for individuals who work internationally to be prepared not only to do the job itself (functional expertise) but also to understand the cultural context in which the job incumbent must function. This paper will present a review of the literature regarding what is perceived to be appropriate preparation. It will also report the results of a survey of business executive perceptions of needs and types of preparation requisite to international business success.

The increasing level of interest in preparing individuals to function internationally relates to the "global economy". In 1987, the United States had a trade deficit of $166 billion which is larger than any other nation including such nations as Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina. Steers and Miller (1988) suggest that each year we in the United States own less and less of our own economy. Growth in the international markets has been phenomenal. In the United States, there are more than 3,500 multinational corporations (MNC's), 30,000 exporting manufacturers, and 25,000 companies with overseas branches and affiliates (Harris & Moran,1987). By 1980, over 200 of the Fortune 500 generated at least 20% of sales abroad. Exports as a percentage of the Gross National Product increased from 4.8% in 1960 to 9.6% in 1981 (Kobrin,1984).

While international trade has become more critical to the economy of the United States, competition with other countries has become a great concern in such industries as automobiles, steel, consumer electronics, and telecommunications (Steers & Miller, 1988). The Commerce Department in 1984 estimated that 70% of domestic firms in the United States faced "significant foreign competition" which was up from 25% only a decade before. In 1987, the Chairman of the Foreign Trade Council estimated that the current percentage is closer to 80% (Jelinek & Adler,1988). Hill, Hitt, and Hoskisson (1988) argue that the United States' competitiveness declines are related to short-term orientations, risk avoidance, and a lack of innovation.

Hofstede (1984) notes that parochialism plagues many management and organizational studies when the cultural context is overlooked. Particularly when the focus is human resources management, to assume that no special attention needs to be focused on the cultural context can be a serious omission. Laurent (1986) suggests that cultural differences translate to policy differences in business operations. This is particularly true in human resources management since policies are designed by culture bearers to manage other culture bearers. Although organizations may attempt to build a corporate culture that will supersede the annoying specificities of different cultures, Laurent (1986) claims that the results are often unpredictable. Most organizations unfortunately learn by accident or necessity how to cope. Such differences are rarely integrated to build a multinational identity for a corporation (Laurent, 1986).

First, it is important that some definition of culture be at least ventured to provide a common base of understanding. The concept is at best extremely vague; some theoreticians claim that there is no good definition of culture. Sekaran (1983) for example suggests that often the concept of culture is used interchangeably with country or nation. A few definitions of culture could include:

> culture is a whole set of social norms and responses that condition a population's behavior (Robock, Simmonds, & Zwick, 1977)
>
> culture is a collective programming of the mind; no single definition will do the concept justice.
> To understand culture, one must define it operationally by examining the behavioral consequences of such programming (Hofstede, 1984).

To suggest theoretically that culture is unique and difficult to define is important academically since it may generate research as well as improved theories of cross cultural management. It appears that to assume each culture is so unique that comparison is futile or meaningless is an approach that in business may lead to arguments that justify the lack of adaptation or even attempts to adapt, such as "business is business" or an insistence on the belief that English is still the business language of the world. There exists in the literature at least anecdotal evidence of gaffes and examples of miscommunication that have lost potential friends and business partners for the United States. Our economic situation as described above makes the following quote highly relevant: "you can buy in any language, but you can't sell in just one" (Balinski, 1987).

It is theoretically defensible that some preparation to work in an internationally related job is likely necessary. For an employee to perform effectively in any job, he/she must understand the role demands of the job, have the appropriate skills and abilities to perform the job, and possess the requisite motivation (Wanous, 1980). All of these components may be significantly modified when a job, even a functionally identical job, is performed totally or partially in the context of a culturally unfamiliar environment. For example, whether an accountant is required to move to Saudi Arabia or interface with Saudis from a base in the United States, he or she will cope with unique issues in the process of accomplishing job demands. Either situation increases the ambiguity in the process of performing a job and may over time impact motivation.

In general, there seem to be problems with the kind of preparation that corporations in the United States provide. First, training to function internationally does not appear to be a high priority. It appears that approximately 50 to 60% of corporations that do business abroad do not provide any preparation for employees (Mendenhall, Dunbar, & Oddou, 1987; Murray & Murray, 1986). Those who do offer training usually offer a brief environmental summary and some cultural and language preparation (Mendenhall, Dunbar, & Oddou, 1987). It is estimated that 57% of such training occurs in a week or less, twenty nine percent involve durations of two to three weeks, and 14% involve one month of training. Very few training interventions include spouse or family, which may be an important contributing factor when expatriates fail (Tung, 1982). The reasons that such training may not be offered include the following: it is not believed that such training is effective, lack of time before the expatriate departs, the assignment may be of short duration, and no need is perceived to exist by top management (Mendenhall, Dunbar, & Oddou, 1987).

It may also be that training is not attempted because managers believe that international expertise can only be learned through experience. In interviewing managers, Kobrin (1984) found that international expertise was perceived to be gained predominantly by business travel and assignments abroad. Very few other factors were perceived to be important such as training programs or education. As an illustration, Kobrin noted that one subject whom Kobrin had interviewed possessed a doctorate although he did not mention the importance of educational background as preparation until probed.

There is a high rate of failure (coming home prematurely before the assignment is completed) among American expatriates. In a review of the literature, Mendenhall, Dunbar, and Oddou (1987) estimate that failure rates range from 20 to 50%. The cost of such failures are estimated to be from $55,000 to $150,000 per expatriate failure. It appears however that both Japanese and European firms offer more extensive training and have lower expatriate failure rates than the United States (Tung, 1984).

The trend appears to be an increasing use of nationals abroad to staff subsidiaries rather than transferring great numbers of Americans to work abroad (Kobrin, 1984). This relates not only to the fact that locals are familiar with the culture but also increased costs of expatriate living, governmental regulations that require a certain level of local employment, expertise available in local human resources, and movement from start-up operations (Kobrin, 1984; Tung, 1982). However, as the global economy continues to escalate, more Americans as part of their job responsibilities will be interfacing with other cultures even though they might not be transferred physically (Kobrin, 1984).

A major stumbling block in preparing individuals for work internationally is that there is a lack of research regarding what preparation will increase international success. In 1978, Newman, Bhatt, and Gutteridge suggested that lists of determinants of expatriate effectiveness were mostly anecdotal and repetitive. A decade later, unfortunately this statement is still representative of the literature. There is an improved source of information available about what needs are perceived to exist although the validity of these perceptions has not been established.

Most of the data available on what criteria business executives consider important for international success suggest the most critical is functional expertise. Beyond this factor however there is a great deal of speculation and even disagreement. The functional knowledge is necessary to possess skills and abilities to perform the job, as Wanous described (1980). For international preparation, the issues revolve around understanding and acting on role demands as well as motivational issues.

The individual's personality may play an important role in facilitating or blocking success in an international role. The most frequently mentioned personality characteristics and interpersonal skills from surveys of business executives were:

- *flexibility and coping skills (Aranda, 1986; Heller, 1980; Kobrin, 1984; Nadler, 1985)
- *human relations skills (Aranda, 1986; Dotlich, 1982; Kobrin, 1984; Steeves, 1984) and
- *empathy and interpersonal sensitivity (Dotlich, 1982; Heller, 1980; Kobrin, 1984; Lee, 1983).

There is a great deal of disagreement over the perceived need to possess foreign language skills. Most surveys appear to suggest that while such skills may be very useful, they are not necessary. In a survey of 200 firms that conducted business abroad, less than half the sample believed that language skills were important. Only 20% of these firms required language skills before an employee could be relocated abroad (Baker, 1984). Another study done by Exxon however found that expatriate effectiveness was best predicted by language skill (Heller, 1980). A survey by Kobrin (1984) of 98 managers with international responsibilities in 47 firms found that the importance of language skills was perceived to vary depending on the role of the individual and geographical region. For example, fluency was perceived to be important in subsidiaries and in lower level positions in which customer contact was frequent. It was also perceived to be easier to use English in Asia and Europe than Latin America.

The conclusion inherent in these studies is that language skills are important although not of primary importance. Kobrin (1984) mentions that it was clear that a person who knew a language well would not be sent abroad without the necessary technical, functional, and managerial skills. There is a highly vocal but minority viewpoint (at least it is minority at this point in time) that suggests an undervaluing of language skills is another symptom representative of our cultural myopia.

Kobrin (1984) notes that language is a critical element of culture. Balinski (1987) suggests that a useful way to learn about a culture is to learn the language. Without language skills, one cannot permeate a culture and one is dependent upon others to interpret environmental input (Kobrin, 1984). An example might be a governmental takeover by an industry causing significant loss. With language skills, one might have foreseen this development by reading the local newspaper and talking to nationals about political developments. Although English may be the corporate language, it is typically not the language of employees, customers, distributors, and suppliers. Yet success may depend on effective communication with these groups.

This research is designed to examine what preparation a sample of business executives consider to be appropriate for both transfer abroad as well as working internationally with a base in the United States. In particular, the issues of functional knowledge, foreign language skills, and other types of preparation will be compared. Implications will be discussed in relation to formal preparation for international work.

METHODOLOGY

Sample. The sample was composed of forty individuals in business positions within the state of Michigan. The sample was randomly selected from the Michigan International Business Services Directory (1984-85) and the membership roster for the World Trade Club of Detroit (1986-1987). The response rate was 13% (40 returned of 310). This response rate is low and will be discussed in the conclusions.

Although the response rate is low, the sample is quite diverse. Positions of the respondents and the proportion that they represented within the sample were:

Presidents:	13%
Vice-Presidents:	13%
Directors:	15%
Managers:	33%
Other:	26%

Excluding company presidents, most of the position titles were internationally related (such as Business Attraction, Export/Import, Marketing or Distribution) or within the Personnel function. The "Other" category included several banking executives, business partners in consulting firms, and account executives.

The type of business represented was also diverse. Thirty percent of the firms were service related such as marketing, public relations, temporary help, accounting, legal, and consulting. Approximately 25% of the firms were freight or transportation and 21% were manufacturing firms. The remainder were varied including businesses such as banking, high tech Research and Development, retail/wholesale, and brokerages. Twenty five percent of the firms had less than 100 employees and thirty percent of the firms had more than 10,000 employees. Sixty percent of the firms operated a foreign subsidiary. It is interesting to note that within these subsidiaries, most of the employees are host country nationals. The mean percentage of local employees was 97.9%; the range was from 90% locals (4.5% of those who reported subsidiaries) to 100% locals (27.3% of those who reported subsidiaries). If an United States citizen was employed in a subsidiary, it was nearly equally likely that the employee was top level management or in a staff position.

Methodology. The data was gathered via a questionnaire that was primarily designed to gauge the interest of business in a newly implemented joint degree at Eastern Michigan University in Business and a foreign language. The business major would be a traditional specialization in marketing, finance/accounting, computer science, or management. Students would also serve a business internship in a country appropriate to their foreign language skills.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 indicates the type of contact that was required of internationally related positions in this sample. Respondents replied on a five point Likert scale ranging from definitely not required to definitely required. Travel in other countries was a common requirement, although the next three behaviors were almost equivalently likely to occur: verbal contact with other employees in the organization or customers in other countries and written contact with employees or customers. Much less likely is the possibility that individuals will be relocated to another country.

Table 2 indicates how important certain skills or knowledge are perceived to be when working internationally. Results strongly suggested that in accordance with the literature, these respondents perceived functional/technical skills to be most important for success. The following skills were perceived to be important and were very closely rated: knowledge of business practices in relevant country, human relations skills, and foreign language skills. A knowledge of the culture was considered least critical. At least in terms of ranking, these factors again suggest that business perceptions of success are strongly related to specific business skills. Process skills related to functioning in another culture are not as strongly valued in comparison.

Respondents were asked to rank certain knowledge and experiences that would be most helpful when an employee was expected to either work in an international context from a base in the United States or be physically transferred to another country. Table 3 indicates the results. Again, functional expertise was considered to be critical. Interestingly, foreign language skill was ranked second in importance whether an employee was located in the United States or abroad. Working with someone who had relevant experience was considered more important when the employee's base was the United States. For living in another country, a bilingual background and cultural knowledge was ranked immediately after functional expertise and foreign language skills. The only factor on the list most related to formal education, the co-op experience, was ranked last under both conditions.

Seventy percent of the sample (N=28) did believe that an individual with a joint degree in Business and a foreign language would be an appropriate job candidate for their business. In particular business areas, the following percentage of the sample considered the expertise as appropriate for an entry level position:

Marketing/Sales	50%
Accounting	20%
Finance	15%
Computer Operations	13%
Human Resources Management	5%
Supervision	8%

Marketing/Sales with requirements for customer interaction is obviously considered most appropriate for such a double major. It may be that when the position success is clearly contingent on communication skills, formal foreign language preparation is valued. For other functional skills, the portion of the job that may relate to the use of foreign language skills may not be significant enough to require expertise in the language. This corresponds to Kobrin's (1984) survey that suggested the necessity of language skills depended on the position. Again, this may relate to the criticality of functional skill in selection as well as the perception that specific international expertise or skills are not acquired typically from a formal education.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The low sample response rate presents an important concern regarding this study. It appears that it is not unusual however in the international area; other researchers have also noted the difficulties inherent in acquiring an adequate response base (Faulhaber, 1988). Hypothetically, it may be that many individuals receiving such a questionnaire may not yet be aware of the implications of international human resource management. This is a potential research area in and of itself. It certainly poses questions regarding the generalizability of this study's results. For example, those who respond to such questionnaires may already be sensitized to the issues and therefore more sophisticated regarding needs for preparation in working internationally.

The major difference between this survey and the results of others described in the literature is that there appears to be slightly more emphasis on the importance of foreign language skills. Although this may be encouraging regarding an expressed sensitivity toward preparation for international demands, it does not indicate that organizations are changing their general attitudes toward an emphasis on specialized preparation for international positions.

The major deficiency in suggesting that language and international expertise is both important and acquirable by means other than experience is that this represents only a hypothesis and one that has not been tested practically. Much of the current literature assumes that preparation either through formal education or corporate training will produce higher levels of work performance. There is no evidence however that those who are formally prepared with language skills, cultural knowledge, and functional skills will perform more effectively than those only prepared functionally. In conclusion, research should first be planned that will examine why individuals are successful in working internationally. If formal preparation appears to be predictive of success, then the effectiveness of means of preparation can be specifically examined. Perceptions of the business sector will likely best be changed through such an approach rather than attempts at persuasion without concrete evidence.

TABLE 1

TYPES OF CONTACT REQUIRED OF INTERNATIONAL POSITIONS

Type of Contact	Mean*	Standard Deviation	Chi Square	Significance Level
Travel in another country	4.2	1.2	27.6	.000
Verbal contact with other employees in another country	4.1	1.5	37.6	.000
Verbal contact with customers in another country	4.1	1.2	14.6	.002
Written contact with other employees or customers in another country	4.1	1.3	27.3	.000
Relocation to another country	2.5	1.5	7.6	.106 NS

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* 1 = definitely not required; 5 = definitely required

TABLE 2

IMPORTANCE OF SKILLS IN INTERNATIONAL POSITIONS

Type of Contact	Mean*	Standard Deviation	Chi Square	Significance Level
Functional	4.6	.87	41.0	.000
Knowledge of business practices in relevant country	4.3	1.0	18.2	.000
Human relations	4.2	.98	11.7	.009
Foreign Language	4.0	.99	8.7	.034
Cultural knowledge	3.9	1.0	4.8	.183 NS

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* 1 = definitely not required, 5 = definitely required

TABLE 3

RANKING OF IMPORTANCE OF KNOWLEDGE AND EXPERIENCE FOR WORKING INTERNATIONALLY FROM A BASE IN UNITED STATES

Knowledge/Experience	Mean Rank
Technical/functional expertise	2.1
Foreign language skill	3.2
Working with someone who has relevant experience	3.3
Appropriate bilingual background	3.3
Knowledge of country's culture	3.7
Co-op experience in relevant country	4.2

RANKING FACTORS OF IMPORTANCE IN WORKING INTERNATIONALLY IN ANOTHER COUNTRY

Knowledge/Experience	Mean Rank
Technical/functional expertise	2.3
Foreign language skill	2.7
Appropriate bilingual background	3.2
Knowledge of country's culture	3.3
Working with someone who has relevant experience	3.9
Co-op experience in relevant country	4.0

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"FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM: WHAT DO THE STUDENTS THINK?"

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ABSTRACT

In response to a heightened awareness of the globalization of the world economy and reacting to curricular standards set by their primary accreiting agency (AACSB), business schools have moved steadily in the direction of internationalizing their curricula. However, few business schools require their students to possess or acquire second language competence. Foreign language study represents elective, and in many cases, extra coursework for business students. This paper reports the findings of senior level business students from five universities. It explores attiudes toward foreign language study, factors which have influenced decisions to take or not to take foreign language courses, and perceptions of the relevance of second language competence to future career success. The implications of these findings are discussed, with particular emphasis on the marketing of foreign language study options to business students.

INTRODUCTION

As nationalistic boundaries of trade continue to diminish, there is heightened awareness that U.S. firms must evolve into effective world competitors. In recent months, with the presence of relatively favorable currency exchange rates, both the opportunities for and the prerequisites to success in the international marketplace have become increasingly apparent.[1] Integral to this is the development of managers who not only are well versed in global economics, but are also informed about the context in which international business decisions are made. It is desirable and, in many instances, essential that managers be knowledgeable about the culture, social norms, business practices, and often the language of their foreign competitors, business partners, and customers.

While employers can begin to develop or enhance a manager's international competence, it is difficult to compensate for a general lack of knowledge coupled with a parochial and sometimes ethnocentric perspective that many Americans bring into the workplace. This poses a formidable challenge for the employer seeking to compete in the international arena. As summarized by one commentator, "American multinational organizations must face the difficult reality that our workforce lacks international or intercultural competence."[2]

If we are to be successful in developing such competencies, a logical starting point is to place additional emphasis on internationalizing our educational system. At the university level, this view is already reflected in the curricular standards and requirements established by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB).[3] There is also growing acceptance among business educators of the position espoused by Professors Richard Steers and Edwin Miller, that an international perspective is today "...an essential element of the business curriculum, and students must be exposed to the international dimension of business throughout their academic program."[4]

American business schools have made use of a wide range of approaches to internationalizing their curricula, ranging from the integration of an international component into exisiting business courses, to the creation of a separate international business course or sequence of courses. In addition, many programs have added the requirement that students take one or more internationaly relevant courses in their nonbusiness (liberal education) coursework. Regardless of the approach toward internationalization that business schools have adopted, with the exception of a small number of schools with specialized international business foci, virtually no specific consideration or encouragement has been given to foreign language preparation or training in the business curriculum.

The lack of business school curricular emphasis on second language competence, coupled with the absence of a comprehensive data base, have contributed to our general lack of knowledge about the extent to which business students possess second language competence or seek to acquire such competence through enrolling in college level coursework. Similarly, there is a paucity of available information concerning both the factors that lead business students to pursue or not to pursue foreign language coursework, and student perceptions about the relevance and usefulness of second language competence to their future careers. This paper reports the results of a survey of undergraduate business students in five American universities that is directed at expanding our awareness of student behaviors, motives, and reactions to foreign language study as a component of the move to internationalize business education.

RELEVANT LITERATURE

Important questions of how attitude impinges upon foreign language study have been dealt with in numerous published works but no research was found that specifically explored the attitudes of business students toward the study of foreign languages. Similarly, no studies were found that sought to identify the factors which affected these students' decisions to study or not to study a second language. Nevertheless, there is a body of more general literature on language attitudes which is relevant to the subject matter of this study.

The diversity of methodologies and purposes of language attitude studies, together with a lack of conceptual consensus among those who have published in this area, lead to a confusing picture of what exactly is meant when we speak of attitudes toward second or foreign language learning.5 In part, this may be attributed to a similar lack of agreement regarding the conceptualization of the attitude construct in the underlying literature of social psychology.6 However, there does seem to be a certain amount of agreement that attitude represents a response by the individual to a social object, and that this response has three components: one's beliefs about the object, the degree to which one feels positively or negatively towards it, and the behavior manifested towards it.7 For the purposes of this paper, all three components of attitude are relevant.

While the measurement of attitudes, specifically as it applies to second or foreign language learning, has not been particularly well-defined in the literature, there are some interesting findings which have important implications for this study. Ageyishi and Fishman describe the multifaceted nature of language attitude studies, noting that such research may entail the analysis of any of the following: 1) subjective evaluation of a particular language; 2) community-wide stereotyping of a given language and/or its speakers; or 3) behavior toward a language resulting from specific attitudes or beliefs.8 These areas of interest are certainly not mutually exclusive, but they do have different emphases. For purposes of this paper, studies of overt and intended behavior toward either the native or a second language are of paramount importance, although these are few in number.

Most research dealing with the effect of attitude on second language study has focused on the relationship between motivation and success in acquiring a second language in a classroom setting. Ostensibly, a positive attitude toward a language, its speakers, and the culture it reflects would predispose the student to a higher level of achievement in learning that language. In this regard, Gardner and Lambert found that instrumental and integrative motivation correlate highly with success in second language study, more so than do measures of mental ability, or language learning aptitude.9

Also of relevance for the present study is research which explores the relationship between the length of foreign language study and a student's attitude toward it. Mueller, for example, found that among college level students enrolled in French courses, attitudes toward language study were overwhelmingly negative, particularly among students who excelled.10 In a study of university level students of Spanish and Portuguese, O'Connor found that at the beginning of their language study, a large majority "... indicated their belief that competence in Spanish or Portuguese would be an asset in their work." By the fourth semester, almost 25% believed the opposite to be true.11 Hancock cites studies which indicate that over time, the attitudes of foreign language students become more negative toward their subject matter, regardless of their initial attitudes or instrumental motivation.12

Although the authors are unaware of any research which has directly measured the attitudes of business students to foreign language study, there is one study by Uber Grosse which is germane to this topic.13 The business and foreign language faculty at two universities in Florida were polled on their attitudes toward the integration of foreign language study in the business curriculum. Among the findings in that study, two were of particular interest: 1) both foreign language and business faculty agreed that traditional foreign language course offerings do not meet the needs of business students, and 2) business faculty opposed language requirements for business students on the grounds that the business curriculum is already filled with area requirements and that "foreign languages are not important enough to be included in the curriculum, relative to core business skills."14 It was also observed that at these two universities at least, the business and foreign language faculty were largely uninformed about each other's discipline, and there was very little communication between them. Uber Grosse concludes that this lack of communication and understanding are major obstacles which must be overcome if there is to be any meaningful integration of foreign language study in the business curriculum.

METHOD

This study was designed to provide preliminary data pertinent to two primary research questions:

1. To what extent do business students choose to enroll in college level foreign language coursework?

2. What factors are associated with or influence a student's propensity to enroll in college level foreign language coursework?

Drawing on existing literature, the input of foreign language and business educators, and suggestions from initial conversations with business students, a survey instrument was developed. The questionnaire was pretested and appropriate revisions were incorporated into the instrument.

Data were collected from students enrolled in the business schools of five geographically dispersed public universities. By design, none of these institutions is among the small number of business schools having a recognized international management curricular emphasis. Student responses were solicited over a three month period beginning November 1987.

At each institution a sample was chosen from among students enrolled in sections of the required senior level, capstone business policy course. This course has as a prerequisite the satisfactory completion of the business core curriculum (required functional area coursework). In practice, because students enroll in the course near the end of their academic program, most students have also completed the majority of their major field or concentration coursework. Since this course is required of all business students, the pooled sample included students with a variety of majors (see Table 1). Additional descriptive data describing the sample are reported in Table 1. Students were asked to participate by their instructors, though no incentives or penalties were assigned. The usable sample, after deleting responses from a small number of respondents whose native language was not English, was 306.

FINDINGS

The data reveal that 74 or about 25 percent of the senior level business students sampled have enrolled in foreign language coursework as college students. Of this number, a high proportion (78 percent) have taken one year or less of college level language study. As is shown in Table 2, a substantially higher proportion of females than males in the sample (32 percent vs. 17 percent) have pursued college level language study. Also reported in table 2 are the following findings: 1) a somewhat higher proportion of students with GPA's in excess of 3.0 have taken language courses than is the case with students having less than a 3.0, 2) nearly one third of the students who had studied a second language for more than one year in high school enrolled in college language courses, while only 15 percent of those with no high school coursework and 10 percent of those with one year or less of high school coursework chose to study a second language in college, 3) a somewhat higher proportion (30 percent) of students expecting to work for national or international employers have taken language courses than is the case with students who expect to be employed in government positions or by local or regional employers (22 percent).

It was also found that being exposed to a language other than English in the household was associated with a greater likelihood to pursue language study. In fact, nearly 48 percent of those reporting exposure to a language other than English at home enrolled in college language courses, while only 23 percent of the non-exposure group enrolled in such courses (see Table 2). Finally, students taking foreign language coursework showed a fairly broad distribution across business degree specializations (majors or concentrations).

Students were also asked whether they considered themselves to be fluent in a language other than English (recall that the sample was restricted to those who reported that English was their native language). Of the sample, 12.5 percent reported that they were fluent in a second language. As is reported in Table 3, a significantly higher proportion of students with more than one year of high school language study and/or more than one year of college language study reported that they were fluent in a language other than English than was the case with students with less than one year of language coursework or no language coursework. It was also found that exposure to a language other than English in the home or in the neighborhood was associated with self-reports of second language fluency (see Table 3).

The survey also inquired of students' beliefs concerning issues relevant to the process of language study. Students who have not taken college coursework involving language study reported a higher level of agreement with the statement that language courses require more study time than most other college courses than did students who have done college work in this area (see Table 4). Both groups of students tended to believe that if they chose to put forth the effort, they would have just as much chance of being successful in a foreign language course as in any other course. However, a somewhat higher level of agreement was reported by those who had already taken foreign language courses in college (see Table 4).

The questionnaire also asked the extent to which students agreed or disagreed with a number of statements concerning the relevance of language study to their business education. Data concerning these questions are reported in Table 4. In general, the sampled students disagreed or mildly disagreed with the premise that there is no valid business reason to acquire competence in a second language since English is the "language of international commerce," agreed or mildly agreed that successful managers of the future will have to be multilingual and multicultural, and mildly agreed that conversational fluency in a language other than English would be helpful in the development of their careers. In each case, students who had chosen to take college level language coursework expressed views that were more supportive of the relevance of second language competence to success in the business world than was the case among students who had not taken such coursework. Moreover, students who have taken more than one year of college language study tended to be more supportive than those who had taken one year or a fraction of one year of college language coursework.

The final area of inquiry concerned the students' self report of the factors which have influenced their decision to enroll or not to enroll in college-level foreign language coursework. Table 5 reports the responses of those students who have chosen to take college courses involving the study of a foreign language. The most frequent responses (selected by 95 percent of the 72 students in this subsample) and simultaneously the strongest influence ($\bar{x}$=2.36) was a general "desire to learn another language." Other factors reported by one-half or more of this subsample were the expectation of foreign travel (81 percent), the desire to further develop existing language skills (77 percent), the belief that foreign language competency will be useful in an initial job search (68 percent), the belief that foreign language competency will be helpful in career advancement (65 percent), and the expectation of living or traveling in another country (51 percent). These and other factors are reported in more detail on Table 5.

Of the students who have not enrolled in language coursework as a part of their college experience, three items were identified by more than 80 percent of this subsample of playing a role in this decision (see Table 6). These factors were that language study takes too much time (85 percent), language courses are not the best use of elective coursework (85 percent), and lack of interest in studying another language (83 percent). On average, each of these factors was evaluated as having a moderate influence on the decision not to persue language coursework. As is indicated in Table 6, six other factors were identified by at least one half of the 230 students in this subsample. Included are items dealing with curriculum constraints, concern about grades, perceptions that career needs will not be served, and the belief that existing language courses do not serve the needs of business students. Of particular interest is an item indicating that previous experiences with language study served to discourage college-level study. While 115 students (50 percent) responded that previous experiences contributed to their decision, this in fact represents over two-thirds of the 172 students within this subsample who had taken high school language coursework. These data are reported in greater detail on Table 6.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study are of direct importance both to those who currently offer or are planning to implement courses in foreign languages specifically for business majors, and to those who would like to attract more business student enrollment in non-targeted course offerings. The findings of this study, based on data collected at business schools which have no significant programatic emphasis or degrees in international management, point to substantial potential problems in creating a demand and developing a clientele for such courses. More specifically, the principal obstacle to successful implementation or marketing of such courses is the lack of significant numbers of students who are predisposed to include foreign language training in their curricula.

Recall that in the current study, only about one-fourth of the students polled had chosen to enroll in college level language courses. Moreover, they frequently had other, non-business related reasons for doing so, including the "desire to learn another language" and the "expectation of foreign travel (see Table 5). Almost four-fifths of this subsample of business students who had enrolled in language coursework also had taken more than one year of language in high school. Although this question was not specifically addressed in this study, it is quite likely that a substantial proportion of these students were motivated primarily by a positive high school experience and continued their studies in the same language they had studied in high school. In any case, this student does not present a great problem for those who would market foreign language courses to business students, not only because language study seems less difficult and time consuming to them, but also because, regardless of their initial motive, these students are ultimately more likely to see a relevant connection between second language competence and their future business careers.

The real difficulty for language educators involves the vast majority of business majors who have elected not to pursue language study. In the current study, about 75 percent of the students sampled had not taken any foreign language in college, even though a large majority of them had some previous language training in high school. These students do not continue foreign language study in college because they perceive such study to be more time consuming and more difficult than other coursework, and what is more important, they consider it largely irrelevant to their career development. In short, they see no reason to risk getting lower grades while investing a great deal of their valuable time and elective coursework in order to engage in something which they believe is unlikely to have an effect, either on their success in obtaining employment initially, or on the prospects for advancement in their future careers.

The findings of this study have two major implications for the successful implementation of foreign language courses for business students. First, although we have no data to support this assumption, experience would indicate that the majority of business students who study a foreign language in college do so in the first two years of their college career. This is likely because of the continuation of the high school language phenomenon, and because by the third year, most business students have begun work in earnest in their professional coursework, which in most business programs leaves very little room, if any, for non-business elective coursework. A further complication is the fact established here that the vast majority of business majors appear to be predisposed toward avoiding foreign language coursework in the first place. If foreign language educators are to attract substantial numbers of students from this potential clientele, which heretofore has shunned foreign language study in college, they must mount a massive campaign of advising and educating students to the potential long-range benefits such study may have on their future business careers. For the reasons mentioned above, this campaign must take place as early as possible in the advising cycle, ideally in cooperation with business school advisors and faculty, and certainly before the junior year when students begin their core business courses.

Potentially a more far-reaching implication of this study involves the substantial majority of students who did not engage in foreign language study in college, but had at least some foreign language training in high school. A large proportion of these students cited their previous foreign language learning experience as one of the factors which influenced their decision not to continue such study in college. This finding is consistent with others mentioned in the professional literature which suggest that the length of foreign language study has a negative effect on student attitudes toward such study.15 Considering this and the fact that a similarly large majority believed that traditional foreign language offerings do not meet the needs of business students (see Table 6), it is evident that foreign language educators who wish to attract business students must be willing to adapt foreign language courses to accommodate the needs of this group of potential students. The adaptation must go beyond the mere creation of specialized upper division language courses for business majors. It may mean a total rethinking of the foreign language skills courses most commonly taught at the lower-division level as well.16

In summary, the data from this study illustrate clearly the formidable task facing those who, in response to the call for further internationalization of the business curriculum, propose the study of foreign languages as an option for answering that call. It will not be sufficient merely to offer coursework as a solution, but rather a sustained educational advising effort must be undertaken along with adaptation of methods and content of foreign language courses, so that second language competence can be an attainable and relevant goal for every business major who desires to pursue it.

NOTES

1 See, e.g., "Made in the U.S.A.," Business Week, No. 3040, February 29, 1988, pp. 60-71; R.I. Kirkland, Jr., "Entering a New Age of Boundless Competition, "Fortune, 117 (3), March 14, 1988, pp. 40-47.

2 Lennie Copeland, "Training Americans to Do Business Overseas," Training, 21 (7), (1984), p. 23.

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5 John A. Lett, "Assessing Attitudinal Outcomes," The Language Connection: From the Classroom to the World, June K. Phillips, ed., (Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Company, 1977), pp. 267-302.

6 Nigel Lemon, Attitudes and Their Measurement (New York: John Wiley, 1973).

7 Lett; Lemon.

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12 Charles R. Hancock, "Student Aptitude, Attitude, and Motivation," Foreign Language Education: A Reappraisal, ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, Volume 4, Dale L. Lange and Charles J. James, eds. (Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Company, 1972), pp. 137-40.

13 Christine Uber Grosse, "Attitudes Toward Languages for Business at Two South Florida Universities," Foreign Language Annals, 16 (6), (1983), pp. 449-453.

14 Uber Grosse, p. 451.

15 See notes 10, 11, and 12 above

16 For a discussion of such a proposal, see Gregory B. Stone and Stephen A. Rubenfeld, "Foreign Language Training: A Useful and Realistic Option for the Business Student," The Journal of Language for International Business, 2 (2), (1986), pp. 15-25.

TABLE 1

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS - SAMPLE

Variables	n[a]	Percentage of responses
Major or Concentration[b]		
Accounting	85	28.1
Economics	8	2.6
Finance	57	18.8
General Business	9	2.9
Management	55	18.2
Management Science/Production	10	3.3
Management Info Systems	34	11.2
Marketing	64	21.1
Personnel	14	4.6
Sex		
Male	158	52.1
Female	145	47.9
Grade Point Average[c]		
3.5 -- 4.00	48	15.8
3.0 -- 3.49	117	38.5
2.5 -- 2.99	106	34.9
2.0 -- 2.49	33	10.6
Below 2.0	0	--

[a] n = 304

[b] Double majors or concentrations result in total n exceeding the sample size and percentages in excess of 100 percent.

[c] The mean grade point average = 2.82.

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TABLE 2

COLLEGE LEVEL STUDY OF SECOND LANGUAGE

College level second language coursework

	YES		NO		CHI sq. sig[b]
	n	%	n	%	
TOTAL SAMPLE	74	24.4%	230	75.6%	-
Sex:					
*male	27	17.2	130	82.8	*
*female	47	32.4	98	67.6	
Gradepoint:					
*3.0 or above	43	26.0	122	74.0	*
*less than 3.0	31	22.5	107	77.5	
Expected type of employer:					
*national or multinational	36	27.9	93	72.1	*
*other (local, regional, gov't, self)	38	22.0	135	78.0	
Major/Concentration[a]					
Accounting	20	23.5	65	76.5	
Economics	2	25.0	6	75.0	
Finance	10	17.9	46	82.1	
General Business	2	22.2	7	77.8	
Management	10	18.2	45	81.9	
Management Science/Production	4	40.0	6	60.0	-
Management Info systems	10	29.4	24	70.6	
Marketing	21	32.8	43	67.2	
Personnel	3	21.4	11	78.6	
Previous Study (high school)					
*yes, 1 year or less	6	10.2	53	89.8	
*yes, more than 1 year	58	32.8	119	67.2	*
*No high school coursework	10	14.7	58	85.3	
Environmental Influences					
1) Language other than English spoken in household					
*yes	10	47.6	11	52.4	*
*no	64	22.7	218	77.3	
2) Language other than English commonly heard in neighborhood					
*yes	10	13.5	64	86.5	N.S.
*no	19	8.3	211	91.7	

[a] Double majors or concentrations result in a total n exceeding the sample size

[b] Chi square significance ≤ .02 denoted by *

TABLE 3

SELF ASSESMENT OF LANGUAGE FLUENCY

Fluent in language other than English?

	YES		NO		CHI sq. sig[b]
	n	%	n	%	
TOTAL SAMPLE	38	12.5%	266	87.5%	-
College Language Study					
*yes, 1 year or less	15	25.9	43	74.1	
*yes, more than 1 year	9	56.2	7	43.8	*
*no	14	6.1	216	93.9	
Previous Study (high school)					
*yes, 1 year or less	-	-	60	100.0	
*yes, more than 1 year	34	19.2	143	80.8	*
*No high school coursework	4	5.9	64	94.1	
Environmental Influences					
1) Language other than English spoken in household					
*yes	10	47.6	11	52.4	*
*no	28	10.1	250	89.9	
2) Language other than English commonly heard in neighborhood					
*yes	7	24.1	22	75.9	*
*no	31	11.2	245	88.8	

[a] Chi square significance $\leq$ .02 denoted by *

TABLE 4

ATTITUDES REVELVANT TO LANGUAGE STUDY[a]

Items	more than 1 year coll. lang. study		1 year or less coll. lang. study		no college lang. study	
	mean	S.D.	mean	S. D.	mean	S.D.
1. It takes more time to be successful in a foreign language course than for most other college courses of an equivalent number of credits.	3.63	2.06	3.40	1.53	2.80	1.51
2. If I chose to put forth the effort, I would have just as much chance of being successful in a foreign language course as I do in any other college courses.	1.68	1.08	1.60	.77	2.10	1.34
3. Since English is the language of international commerce, there is really not a valid business reason for most business students to acquire competence in a second language.	5.81	1.42	5.38	1.24	4.56	1.68
4. The successful manager of the future will have to be multilingual and multicultural.	2.38	1.93	3.17	1.29	3.40	1.45
5. Conversational fluency in a language other than English would be helpful in the development of my career.	2.56	1.86	3.21	1.61	3.35	1.56

[a] items were scaled on a 7 point scale: 1 = strongly agree; 2 = agree; 3 = mildly agree; 4 = neither agree nor disagree; 5 = mildly disagree; 6 = disagree; 7 = strongly disagree.

TABLE 5

FACTORS THAT HAD INFLUENCE ON THE DECISION TO ENROLL IN COLLEGE-LEVEL FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSEWORK

Factor	n[a]	percentage[b]	mean[c]
1. The desire to learn another language.	70	94.6%	2.36
2. The expectation of foreign travel sometime in the future.	60	81.0	2.03
3. The desire to further develop skills I already had in a language other than English.	57	77.0	2.23
4. Belief that foreign language competency will be helpful in any initial job search.	50	67.6	1.74
5. Belief that foreign language competency will be helpful for the advancement of my career.	48	64.9	1.73
6. Expectation that I will live and/or work in another country for some portion of my career.	38	51.3	1.76
7. Competency in a second language is required or encouraged in my degree program.	22	29.7	1.59
8. Advice from faculty.	18	24.3	1.67
9. Ethnicity or family background.	15	20.2	2.00
10. Pressure from family.	7	9.5	1.28

[a] n = the number of students identifying each item as having an influence on their decision to enroll.

[b] percentage of the subsample (n = 74) identifying each item as having an influence on their decision to enroll.

[c] mean intensity of influence: the average degree of influence among those reporting the item to have influenced their decision (3 = strong influence; 2 = moderate influence; 1 = weak influence.

TABLE 6

FACTORS THAT HAD INFLUENCE ON THE DECISION NOT TO ENROLL IN COLLEGE-LEVEL FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSEWORK

Factor	n[a]	percentage[b]	mean[c]
1. Language study takes too much time.	196	85.2%	1.97
2. Language courses are not the best use of my elective coursework.	195	84.8	2.01
3. Lack of interest in studying another language.	190	82.6	2.11
4. There is insufficient elective coursework in my curriculum.	150	65.2	1.69
5. Concern about getting lower grades than I usually get.	149	64.8	1.80
6. Belief that foreign language competency will not be helpful in my initial job search.	148	64.3	1.81
7. Language courses which are available do not serve the needs of business students.	138	60.0	1.38
8. Belief that foreign language competency will not be helpful for the advancement of my career.	137	59.5	1.71
9. My previous experiences with language study discouraged me.	115	50.0	2.02
10. I already have adequate skills in a language other than English.	62	27.0	1.34
11. Friend discouraged language study.	56	24.3	1.27
12. Advice from faculty.	38	16.5	1.31

[a] n = the number of students identifying each item as having an influence on their decision not to enroll.

[b] percentage of the subsample (n = 230) identifying each item as having an influence on their decision not to enroll.

[c] mean intensity of influence: the average degree of influence among those reporting the item to have influenced their decision (3 = strong influence; 2 = moderate influence; 1 = weak influence.

14C

SO YOU WERE A LANGUAGE MAJOR: CORPORATE INTERVIEWING AND TRAINING IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND CROSS-CULTURAL SKILLS

by

Professor Roberta Seabrook
and
Professor Berardo Valdes
Iowa State University

SO YOU WERE A LANGUAGE MAJOR: CORPORATE INTERVIEWING AND TRAINING IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND CROSS-CULTURAL SKILLS

Roberta Seabrook and Berardo Valdes
Iowa State University

When we chose to survey American multinationals about their hiring and training of international managers with foreign language skills, we decided to follow up our written questionnaire of January 1988 with personal interviews whenever possible. We had chosen to explore a paradox pointed out by previous surveys - the seeming indifference of these multinationals to implement hiring or training practices to remedy the much-bemoaned lack of foreign-language skills on the part of American managers operating abroad.[1] While the press, politicians and government and education officials demanded a renewed emphasis on foreign-language in the curriculum, it was, with few exceptions, business as usual for the American corporations during the past decade, which continued to insist that English be the language of business. Very often the graduates of our programs in foreign language for international trade find jobs with foreign-based multinationals operating in this country. These companies often have an in-house language and cross-cultural training program to perfect skills in the target language and culture. It seemed to us that previous surveys had adopted one point of view, either corporate or educational, and had assumed that both parties had a common understanding and common goals. We have found just the opposite to be true. Both groups need to work together to design successful programs to prepare future international managers. In our discussions we tried 1) to assess whether or not corporate managers or human resource development officers were aware of the great strides taken in the university community in the last decade in the implementation of a proficiency-based curriculum for foreign languages, and in the devising of means to measure these skills, and 2) to explore and discuss the complex of factors which has resulted in the somewhat negative attitude uncovered by previous research.

In the late sixties and early seventies the international corporate sector began a serious self evaluation in an effort to determine the profile of a successful international manager.[2] One of the questions often asked was - is foreign language proficiency a prerequisite for success abroad? A stickier problem was just how to implement language or cross-cultural training. This was not a primary concern, of course. But it was a period when language study was languishing after enjoying a brief boom in the Sputnik era. It took the staggering trade deficits of the late seventies and early eighties to underscore the urgency of establishing new training priorities for American multinationals. The foreign language boom of the eighties was born not out of concern for national security, but from a perceived need to regain the competitive edge. Dr. J. David Edwards of the Joint National Committee for Foreign Language best sums it up: "Toyota is the Sputnik of the 80's."[3]

Since we observed that signals sent out by surveys and the financial media were sometimes contradictory, or even misleading, we decided to imitate our colleagues in cultural anthropology. We chose to follow up a mailing to multinationals with as many personal interviews as we could manage. Interviews with commercial language schools and cross-cultural training consultants added another needed perspective. And we felt we could , as our survey progressed, call on previous acquaintances and colleagues in senior management at the multinationals to discuss the significance of our findings. What follows is an in-progress report or the three activities.

In the initial stages of implementing the survey we sent out 341 surveys by mail to Fortune 500 multinationals. In addition we did 19 in-person interviews armed with the same survey. We chose these 19 companies because we felt that they were bellwether companies. We had read about their international efforts or had had personal contacts with them in the past. A half dozen or so of these firms in the tobacco and petroleum industries had cut back on their hiring of international managers due to decentralization of their operation. We wanted to discuss the negative aspects with these firms in particular.

Our total usable responses were 89 (24.7%), including our 19 initial in-person "surveys." These 89 firms operate abroad in from two to 155 countries around the world. The survey itself was brief (see Appendix A). We felt that a fairly constant profile of an American international manager had emerged in previous surveys: a mature individual with previous international exposure and a substantial number of years with the firm. The most common denominator is generally the MBA. We were interested in pinpointing the training of these individuals, both before and after hiring. Since language for business programs have proliferated over the last decade, we wanted to determine how much of an impact they have had on the larger multinationals. We knew our findings would be somewhat discouraging and we wanted to initiate a long overdue discussion of why this should be so: question number five was a key question for us. Respondents were asked to indicate criteria they rely on to fill such positions:

a. Master's in International Business with applied language training.

b. An internship abroad or with a multinational.

c. Certificate from the relevant Chamber of Commerce indicating that the candidate has passed an exam administered by that body, i.e., Chambre de Commerce de Paris, Madrid Chamber of Commerce, etc.

d. Certified oral proficiency rating.

e. In-house exam and/or interview in the language.

f. Undergraduate language training with specific language-for-business courses.

g. A traditional Ph.D. program in foreign language.

h. A traditional undergraduate major with no applied language courses.

i. Translator's certification.

j. Previous business experience utilizing the language.

k. Other. Please describe.

We had expected an emphatic "no" to "g." However we were surprised to find that not a single respondent checked "c." Academic programs across the country have come to rely on the various Chamber of Commerce proficiency exams. We all anticipated that our improved ability to measure proficiency via these exams and the ACTFL oral proficiency interview had improved our graduates' preparation, and would be so recognized by industry. However, while our respondents were familiar with Berlitz's proficiency exams (both written and oral), they were wholly unaware of the progress made in proficiency testing in academia.

In question number six we asked the participants to list their top five criteria in ranking order. The M.I.B. (a) and previous experience abroad (j) shared first place. An internship abroad was a close third, followed by in-house exams and an undergraduate language and international trade degree.

The follow-up interviews with firms who tested applicants in-house yielded the same negativity prevalent a decade ago. Unless the candidate has had considerable experience abroad it is all too likely that it will be impossible to determine from the resume whether or not this is someone who can really handle the language. The preliminary screening of candidates for positions in international marketing research at the New York City headquarters of a leader in the petroleum industry underscores the seriousness of the problem. Interviewees are handed the morning newspaper in the target language and asked to translate a few paragraphs aloud on sight. Alas, few applicants can do this. This dilemma occurs all too often according to our respondents. This serves to underscore the need to graduate majors with an advanced level of foreign-language proficiency.

Questions number eight through twelve concerning on-the-job training in foreign-language and cross-cultural skills elicited the expected responses. Not one firm managed their own in-house program. They utilized consultants and outside agencies, mainly commercial language schools. Many companies stated a preference for training abroad in the target country. The typical number of hours approaches the equivalent of a one-year college introductory course. 47 per cent of the group mentioned an in-house cross-cultural training program, but only 17.6 per cent have a senior-level person charged with overseeing such a program. A typical program lasts several days, and is handled by an outside training firm.

In talking with individuals at the various multinationals we came to realize that the increased emphasis on cross-cultural training in the last decade owes much of its impetus to something other than the need to compete abroad, namely clashes between different racial, religious and ethnic groups right here in this country.

If we look at our international competitors we find many successful foreign-language and culture training programs to serve us as an inspiration. It is sad to note that our graduates most often receive further training when employed by Japanese, French or German corporations operating in the U.S.

1. How could we improve our courses to employers' expectations?

2. What could our students expect in terms of career options?

3. What are the criteria for hiring? How do our students measure up to these standards?

4. "Measure" is a key word for our profession. How do corporations measure language competency?

5. Could the student expect further training in language and cross cultural skills after employment? If so, what kind?

Other questions were less obvious, but gradually came into focus as we proceeded with our initial mailing.

We'd like to analyze the negative aspects of these responses. Those of us who counsel students considering international careers need to maintain a constant awareness that the eighties are the decade of decentralization in both government and the manufacturing sector. This change in corporate structure means each fairly autonomous overseas unit does its own hiring and training. Americans are brought overseas only if there is a need, which can't be met locally, for someone with high-level technical expertise. This is a last resort since a) the local pay rate would be less and b) strict quotas are imposed on work permits for foreigners. In all likelihood the American chosen to fill such a need will not speak the language and is likely, the numbers tell us to undergo immersion training at Berlitz, or on site overseas. In the personal interviews, we were repeatedly told that there is a growing tendency to reject stateside training as not effective.

The giants which have not decentralized are in the process of doing so. AT&T and IBM are two recent examples. IBM's case highlights another facet of this complex question: the growing tendency to hire foreign born top executives to work here in the U.S. These managers have an enormous advantage over American senior executives operating abroad. The American expatriate manager usually cannot progress to a top-level post after returning to the U.S. For the European, Asian, etc., experience abroad enhances a career. Many European CEO's have had important assignments abroad. And this already has had a significant impact on our corporate structure. The foreign manager in an American international division must, in turn, hire more foreign senior personnel. This can lead to a morale problem within the corporation.

This influx of non-American managers is about to increase with the exodus of the best and brightest Hong Kong managers to Canada, Australia and the U.S. before the 1997 takeover by mainland China. As we seek to predict the future of our graduates, this becomes the key issue for the next century. We are using foreign nationals to solve our immediate needs. We are also in the business of bringing high technology to the rest of the world by training international students in our graduate programs. What will happen when we no longer have the technological edge, yet rely on others to do our negotiating abroad? If we may be permitted an Iowa metaphor, if in the words of Paul Simon, Americans continue to be 'tongue-tied', they are going to be hog-tied in the twenty-first century.

Survey of Recruitment and Training For Positions Requiring Foreign Language and Cross-Cultural Skills

1. Corporation name and headquarters address:

2. Briefly describe the nature and scope of the business - service, manufacturing, retail, banking, financial services, etc.

3. Is the business a multinational? In which countries does it operate?

4. Do your domestic or international operations require college-trained personnel with ability in a foreign language and/or knowledge of a foreign culture? Please explain. Please continue on back page if you need more room.

5. If you answered yes to question 4, please indicate criteria you rely on to fill these positions. Check ( ) categories which apply:

   a. Master's in International Business with applied language training. ______

   b. An internship abroad or with a multinational. ______

   c. Certificate from the relevant Chamber of Commerce indicating that the candidate has passed an exam administered by that body, i.e., Chambre de Commerce de Paris, Madrid Chamber of Commerce, etc. ______

   d. Certified oral proficiency rating. ______

   e. In-house exam and/or interview in the language. ______

   f. Undergraduate language training with specific language-for-business courses. ______

   g. A traditional Ph.D. program in foreign language. ______

   h. A traditional undergraduate major with no applied language courses. ______

i. Translator's certification. ______

j. Previous business experience utilizing the language. ______

k. Other. Please describe. ____________________

6. Please indicate which of the above criteria are most important in ranked order - 5 equals most important.

5 ____________________
4 ____________________
3 ____________________
2 ____________________
1 ____________________

7. Please indicate which of the criteria have not been reliable. Explain why.

8. Do you train employees in foreign language skills after they are hired? Yes No

9. If you answered yes to 8 please indicate whether language training is

a. In-house

b. Done in-house by an outside agency, i.e., language school or university.

c. Handled outside mainly by a language school or university.

d. Furnished on an individual basis with a variety of sources utilized.

10. If your company has a regular training program as outlined above, please describe it. Continue on back or on a separate sheet.

11. Do you have a regular cross-cultural training program? Yes_____ No_____

If yes, please describe.

12. Does the company have an individual charged with facilitating cross-cultural relations within the organization. Yes_____ No_____

If yes, please describe.

13. May we use your company name and quote your answers in our report? Yes_____ No_____

____
Signature

____
Position

14. Would you be willing to participate in a further interview? No _____

Yes, I can be contacted at:

Other company contacts?

NOTES

[1] There are only a handful of studies initiated by foreign language educators. These are sometimes *local* in scope. For a broader treatment see John R. Hubbard and Robert Ristau, "A Survey of Bilingual Employment Opportunities in International Trade," *Foreign Language Annals*, 16 (1982), 115-121, and Marianne Inman, "Language and Cross Cultural Training in American Multinational Corporations," *The Modern Language Journal*, 69 (1985), 247-254.

[2] A sampling of the literature has been included in the Bibliography. Journals mentioned there include articles on international management on a regular basis.

[3] Quoted by Larry Rohter, "Why Foreign Languages Are Relevant Again," The New York Times, Section 12 (4 January, 1987), 33-36.

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IMPLEMENTING AN INNOVATIVE INTERNATIONAL MANAGEMENT PROGRAM: SURPRISING PAY-OFFS

by

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"Implementing an Innovative International Management Program: Surprising Pay-Offs"

Dr. Robert Dennehy
Dr. Betty Torrance

Dr. Torrance:

Establishing a cooperative relationship with another department within a university, especially when crossing the boundary between Business and the Liberal Arts, is often difficult. Pace University is probably typical of most academic institutions in that there are distinct lines which are drawn between the various schools. There are, however, certain things that can be done to enhance communication and ultimately cooperation, and I will deal with this process during the next few minutes. It is, admittedly, based on my personal experiences, but I believe some general conclusions can be drawn from them. These conclusions about the relationship between language and business will be the subject of the second part of my talk.

In 1980, NEH and Emory University co-sponsored a grant for upgrading language curriculum. I applied and was fortunate to receive funding to attend the workshops in Houston. At that time, our language department was looking closely at our offerings, especially at those which seemed cumbersome and out of date. I am referring specifically to an overabundance of literature courses.

Because of the grant experience, I was able to focus on our needs, and it was clear that because of the importance of the Lubin School of Business at Pace, we could best be served by expanding our offerings in the language for business area. The dilemma we were faced with was what to change, how to change it, and what direction to take.

Another feature of the NEH-Emory experience was that of a grant-writing workshop, specifically designed to teach people how to apply for monies: In 1982, we submitted a proposal for an NEA consultancy grant for developing curriculum in conjunction with the International Management and Marketing departments. There were two aspects to deal with: 1) the languages themselves and how to update offerings and 2) an 18 credit International Management requirement in language and/or culture. We were funded for 1982-83, and during that year established a very strong working relationship with members of the Department of International Management. During that period, Bob, myself, our consultant, Edward Dudley, and another member of the language department visited three schools: The University of South Carolina, because of its MIBS (Masters of International Business Studies)program, The University of Miami, and Florida International University. We chose them because they were similar to our institution and because they offered programs in areas we wished to explore. This experience was very valuable, because it exposed us to a variety of working models for cooperative ventures, and also reconfirmed our commitment to developing an integrated program for our undergraduate majors.

By the end of the year, the 18 credit sequence was in place, and we could begin the expansion of our offerings, targeting I.M. majors. We also began thinking of expanding into other areas - such as sponsoring a conference at Pace for area high school and college faculty. This occurred in 1984 and focused on "Language for Business: The Teaching Profession." It was sponsored by our department and that of International Management.

In 1985 another conference was held - dealing specifically with teaching languages and cultures. The thrust this time was to upgrade the teaching of new courses we had adopted and to re-tool ourselves for those we had been teaching for years. Change is never easy, and I will admit that this has been the biggest challenge.

Because of the recent emphasis on teaching for proficiency, our department members attended a number of ACTFL workshops designed to acquaint them with this concept. Most faculty were receptive to it and have adopted certain techniques which relate to proficiency. In certain instances we have run into problems. As part of my own enrichment, I went through the workshops and in 1987 became a certified tester in Spanish. This has been for me a very rewarding direction to take, and it makes teaching more fun, relevant, and challenging.

This has been my experience over the past 8 years. It has been a process of growth and widening vision which made me aware that we must do much more to prepare our students for a world which is already multi-cultural, multi-national, and trans-national.

I have come to three conclusions which I would like to share with you.[1] The first is that the traditional one or two semester commercial language courses are not enough to deal with the problems which confront us in the world of business today. Tasks such as negotiation, interviewing, giving oral reports in the target language, talking about business matters on the phone, sending a Telex, marketing a product, managing a group of foreign nationals (or at least communicating meaningfully with them), of analyzing case studies, are all things that should be included in our language for business courses. These functions demand a high level of language ability. Ideally, they should be taught after an advanced course in both commercial language and one in culture.

The second conclusion is that businesses have been, and will continue to be, slow in adopting new and creative approaches to language and business connections. According to Mark Eaker, MBA Director from the University of North Carolina, it is seldom in the professional interest of faculty members to develop international expertise. There are few if any benefits attached to doing so. Another reason is that there is no consensus about the benefits international education provides managers. Managers differ about the relative importance of language and cross-cultural skills. We know that American businesses are not entering the international markets as much as they might. The forces in business has often tended to negate the importance of language or culture studies. Naturally, business schools, except for an enlightened few, have tended to reflect that mind-set.

This brings me to a final conclusion: that there is a real need for language and cross-cultural studies in the business curriculum. There has been some small movement along these lines, but much more needs to be done. There is evidence, at least in multinational corporations, that European and Japanese firms are more likely to provide cross-cultural training to their managers. 69% of European schools, 57% of Japanese and 32% of American do this. Surely we need to look at the reasons why the European and Japanese have done so well in expanding their international markets. It is very possible that their emphasis on language and cross-cultural learning have been the key to their success.

I feel fortunate at Pace to be in an environment which allows for academic development along these lines. Bob will now expand on future directions we hope to take.

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[1] These conclusions are dealt with more extensively in the January 1987 Bulletin of the New York State Association of Foreign Language Teachers, p. 7-8.

A METALANGUAGE FOR CROSS-CULTURAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

by

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A METALANGUAGE FOR CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

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"Do ideas really occur in chains, or is this lineal structure imposed on them by scholars and philosophers?....Logic is precisely unable to deal with recursive circuits without generating paradox and...quantities are precisely not the stuff of complex communicating systems." Gregory Bateson,MIND AND NATURE: A NECESSARY UNITY.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate the power and flexibility of the influence diagrams used in System Dynamics as a medium of communication, a METALANGUAGE. Influence diagrams, as a form of representation, have been used successfully at International Conferences of the System Dynamics Society to communicate to business, scientific, and non-technical audiences on a wide range of subjects, including the management of natural resources; market analysis;techniques for linguistic simulation; and the etiology and treatment for worker burnout. While English is the language of discourse for all conference papers and sessions, the cross-cultural language which facilitates the exchange of complex concepts and technical principles, and which is, indeed, the common language of this international organization is System Dynamics, particularly the influence diagrams used by System Dynamacists to facilitate the explanation of the text and the relevance of the model.(Wolstenholme and Coyle, 1983).

INTRODUCTION

Many influential thinkers, among them Alfred Korzybski, pointed out the limitations of linear, Aristotelian systems, and the inadequacy of forms of representation, such as the inability of Euclidean and Newtonian systems to deal successfully with electricity; AND THE INADEQUACY OF INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES TO EXPRESS NON-LINEAR CONCEPTS. This paper shows how influence diagrams in System Dynamics TRANSCEND THE CULTURAL BIASES OF NATURAL LANGUAGES; TRANSCEND ARISTOTELIAN BI-POLAR THINKING (either/or; win/lose); and FACILITATE COMMUNICATION BETWEEN PEOPLE IN DIVERSE PROFESSIONS, i.e. engineers and accountants; managers and technicians.

My approach to communication emphasizes praxis, not abstract theory. It uses an approach broadly based on Bertalanffy's General Systems Theory, and Norbert Weiner's cybernetics.

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THE SYSTEMS APPROACH

My study of language and communication is based on a Systems

Approach. It posits that the whole is greater than its parts, and emphasizes the connections among the various parts of the process of communication. "Systems thinking is concerned with connectedness and wholeness. By its nature, a systems view of a problem cuts across disciplinary boundaries as defined by many traditional sciences, in a search to understand a problem from an integrated vantage point."(Roberts,1983,5).

Communication is dependent on context, culture, connotation, and COMMITMENT, and closely related to metaphor, mnemonics, and medium, in our efforts to establish a shared meaning between the sender and the receiver. According to I.A. Richards, "the goal of communication is to create a similar mental experience in the other, a goal that can be achieved only when the communicators share a certain degree of past experience."(Littlejohn, 1983,96)). The analysis of communication problems, because of the many variables and complexities and interrelationships involved, benefits greatly from a systems approach, and more specifically from a new branch of System Dynamics called Qualitative System Dynamics.

System Dynamics was developed at MIT in the 1950's. Professor Jay W. Forrester, founder and head of the MIT System Dynamics Group, has written extensively on the subject, applying the principles of systems to problems of management, urban development, and national and international economics. Edward Roberts, professor at MIT, defines System Dynamics as "the application of feedback control system principles and techniques to managerial, organizational, and socioeconomic problems."(Roberts, 1978). Historically, System Dynamics owes much of its philosophy and practice to the analysis of information feedback systems which "originated in engineering experience with simple mechanical and electro-mechanical servo-mechanisms."(Roberts, 1978, 31)

Traditionally, System Dynamics has been defined in terms of quantitative testing of hypotheses, and computer simulations:

"System Dynamics is a method of understanding and improving the complex interactions that characterize biological, engineering,managerial and social systems. Its primary feature is the application of feedback control principles to real human system problems. A feedback system exists whenever a decision that will affect the future state of a situation is based on the perceived past or present state of that situation. This circular cause and effect chain is called an information feedback control loop....The loops do not function separately, but are coupled together to form complex feedback systems that are whole interacting entities....

SD analysis begins with the identification of the system's objectives and dynamic symptoms, the performance time patterns that prevent goal achievement. Then the operation of the system

is observed and measured {leading to the formulation of a Dynamic Hypothesis}. The dynamic hypothesis is QUANTITATIVLEY TESTED (emphasis mine) by writing a set of dynamic equations (the model) that represents the way the system really works....In the next step model time histories are simulated using a SD computer program called DYNAMO, and compared to the real past histories of the real system variables operating under similar conditions."(Fey and Robinson, 1987,2).

System Dynamicists who see the value of making the methodology of System Dynamics more accessible, more easily understood, and more compatible with the purposes and methods used by researchers in the humanities and in the social sciences, urge the adoption of Wolstenholme's definition, which distinguishes the system description and system analysis phases of SD. Qualitative System Dynamics, says Wolstenholme, is:

"A rigorous method for problem identification, system description, qualitative modelling and analyses of change in complex systems; which facilitates and can lead to quantitative modelling and dynamic analysis for the design of system structure and control."(Wolstenholme, 1985, 1052).

NON-LINEARITY AND COMMUNICATION

Non-linearity is the basis of the new New Science concerning communication in terms of cognition and computers. Vico, in LA SCIENZA NUOVA (1744) systematically explored the relationship of languages to culture. Much that has been written about language since then has emphasized its inseparability from culture, context, and connotation. (see Ogden and Richards; Eco; Steiner; Winograd and Flores). To truly understand another language requires a knowledge of the history and culture of the people who use it; this requires much time and effort, and cannot always assure successful decoding and mutual understanding because of the number and subtlety of the variables in interpersonal communication.

Influence diagrams used in System Dynamics can avoid many of the difficulties of encoding and decoding natural languages. An understanding of influence diagrams combines the advantages of a "language" not biased by culture, or history; a non-linear approach to problem-solving and critical thinking; and the clarity and conciseness of graphic representation.

RE-THINKING STRUCTURES: PHILOSOPHY AND PEDAGOGY

Aristotle, said Korzybski, aimed to "formulate a general method for 'all scientific work.' In his day these values were 'two-valued" and 'objective.' While these orientations worked well enough in 350 B.C., the Aristotelian splits between body and mind; space and time; subject and object; are now seen as unsound and delusional. Moreover, the static, objective, solid matter orientations" of earlier science have yielded to the "dynamic, everchanging electronic process orientations."(Korzybski, 1941, xxxiii-xli).

Recent research on left/right brain dominance suggests the value of a non-linear approach to learning. Jerre Levy, a prominent researcher in this field, says that contrary to the popular myth, people use both the right and left brain hemispheres all the time. The late 19th century myth that the right hemisphere was merely a "relay station" had unfortunate consequences for theories of learning behavior. One such consequence was that "standard school curriculums"(sic) only educated the 'logical' left hemisphere." (Levy, 1985). But by 1970 the "reign of the left brain essentially ended," and the scientific evidence now indicates that:

"To the extent that regions are differentiated in the brain, they must INTEGRATE(emphasis mine) their activities. Indeed, it is precisely that integration that gives rise to behavior and mental processes greater than and different from each region's special contribution."(ibid.)

Some researchers argue, in effect, that our educators rely too heavily on a linear, sequential, bits-and-pieces model of learning behavior, aimed primarily at the left hemisphere of the brain. Current researchers conceive of thelearning process as "a spiraling circle rising ever upward to greater levels of complexity and achievement."(Berman, 1985). According to this model, the instructor should try to integrate left/right brain exercises to help the learner use both the analytic and creative sides of the brain. GRAPHIC REPRESENTATIONS SUCH AS INFLUENCE DIAGRAMS ENGAGE THE RIGHT HEMISPHERE, which is superior to the left in "manipulating spatial patterns and relationships," and "appears to process information simultaneously and holistically." (Springer, 1985).

INFLUENCE DIAGRAMS

System Dynamics, as indicated earlier, focusses on the structure and the behavior of systems. The structure and behavior of systems is represented by diagrams called feedback loops. These loops "serve as preliminary sketches of causal hypotheses" and "can simplify the illustration of a model....(they) allow the analyst to quickly communicate the structural assumptions underlying the model."(Goodman, 1980, 5).

A good way to understand positive and negative feedback loops is to think in terms of the classical textbook example of a simple thermostatically controlled heating system. This is a self-regulating or homeostatic system which is goal-oriented and has a control mechanism. The heating unit is activated when the thermostat senses a DIFFERENCE between the desired room temperature and the actual temperature. As the room is heated and reaches the desired room temperature as indicated on the set point of the thermostat, the thermostat turns the heater OFF. Notice that this is a negative feedback loop, indicating the presence of a GOAL and of CONTROL. Positive signs (+) indicate changes in the same direction; negative (-) in the opposite direction. An example of a positive loop is economic inflation or economic depression as represented by an upward or downward spiral that continues in the same direction, with ever-increasing velocity, becoming more and more out of control.

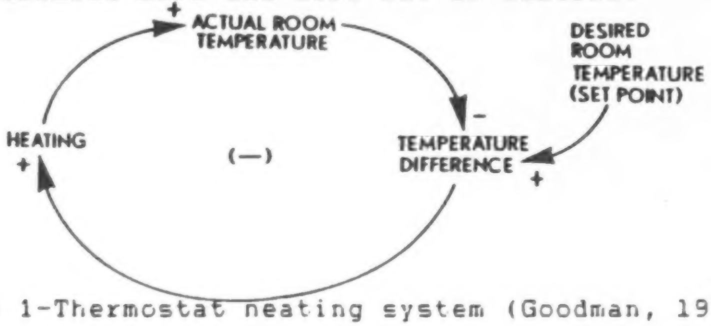


Figure 1-Thermostat heating system (Goodman, 1980,37).

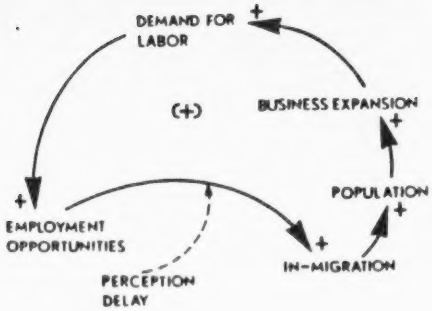
The diagram below represents "simple causal hypothesis relating two feedback loops underlying urban behavior. These hypotheses include:

1. Job availability JA attracts migrants M to the city.
2. New arrivals to the city expand the labor population L.
3. Population absorbs available jobs, decreasing the amount of job availability JA.
4. In the long run, as labor also creates demand for additional goods, urban services and facilities, a further increase in the total number of jobs in the J area comes about.
5. More jobs J increase job availability JA.

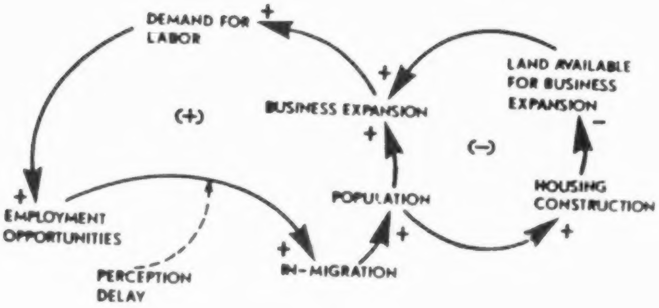
The influence diagrams concerning population growth, medical health, labor force and educated population in urban and rural China, and national development policies for underdeveloped countries are included here to indicate how they are used in papers presented at System Dynamics Conferences, and to show the complexity and gravity of the kinds of problems System Dynamics addresses. A detailed explanation of the loops, which are included in THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE 1985 INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF THE SYSTEM DYNAMICS SOCIETY, are beyond the scope of this paper, though a general summary will be provided.

CONCLUSION

Recent developments in communication technologies, as well as current research in language, cognition, and computers indicate a need for non-linear approaches to understanding how humans acquire language, and how they process information to arrive at meaning. Even the most sophisticated computer methods of translating Japanese into English are sorely limited by the limitations of the syntaxes of the languages used. The experience of the International System Dynamics Society indicates an alternative mode of communication that transcends cultural bias, and Aristotelian bi-polar thinking; the language of influence diagrams are more easily accessible to the part of the brain that processes spatial and holistic relationships, and facilitates communication of people from vastly different cultures, experiences, and professions.


DEMAND FOR LABOR
+
(+)
BUSINESS EXPANSION
+
POPULATION
+
+
EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES
+
IN-MIGRATION
PERCEPTION DELAY

Population-economic growth loop
Goodman, 143


DEMAND FOR LABOR
+
+
LAND AVAILABLE FOR BUSINESS EXPANSION
(+)
BUSINESS EXPANSION
+
(−)
−
+
HOUSING CONSTRUCTION
POPULATION
EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES
+
+
+
IN-MIGRATION
PERCEPTION DELAY

Combined loops Goodman, 145

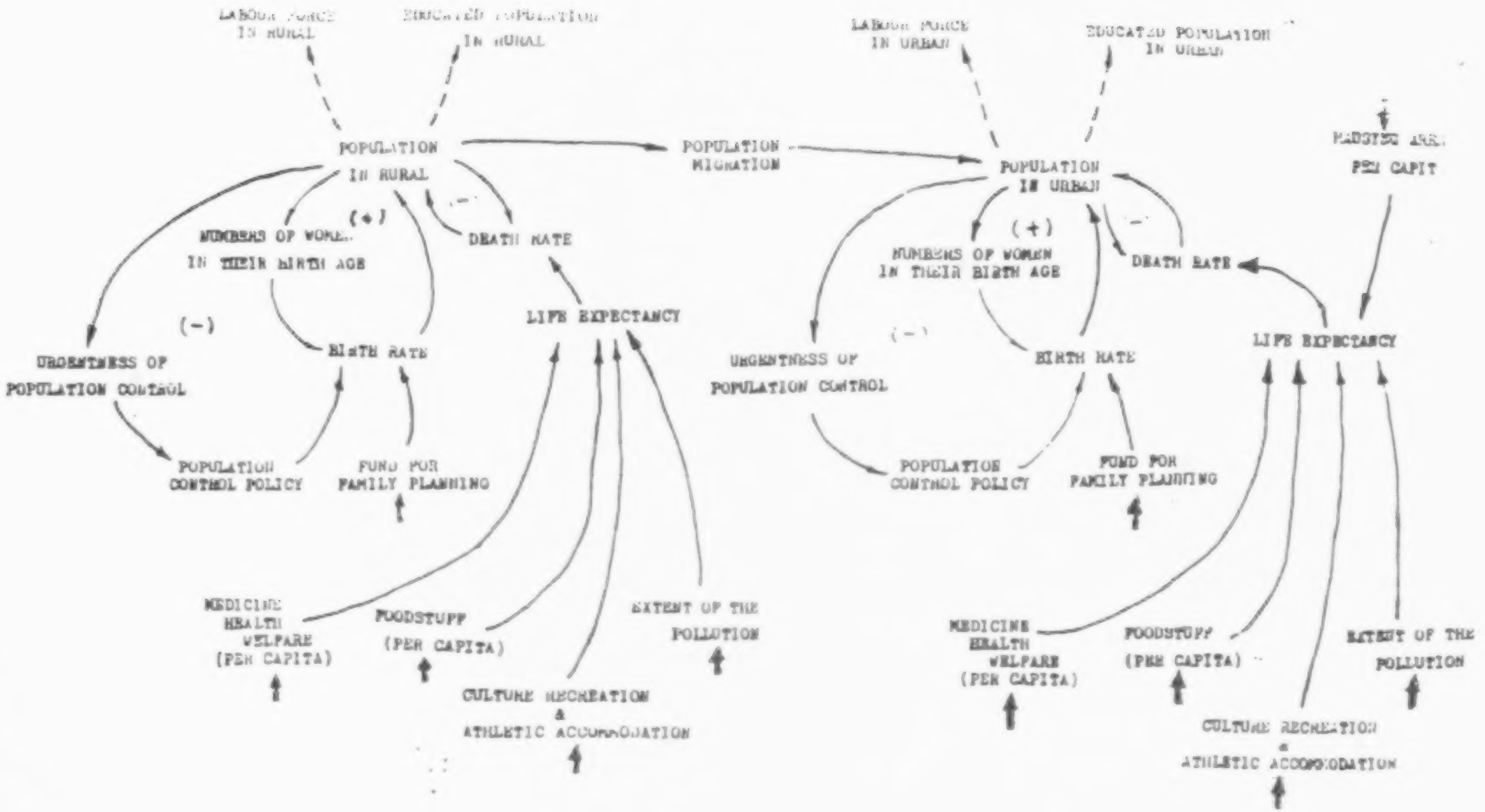

LABOUR FORCE IN RURAL
EDUCATED POPULATION IN RURAL
POPULATION IN RURAL
POPULATION MIGRATION
(+)
(-)
NUMBERS OF WOMEN IN THEIR BIRTH AGE
DEATH RATE
(-)
LIFE EXPECTANCY
URGENTNESS OF POPULATION CONTROL
BIRTH RATE
POPULATION CONTROL POLICY
FUND FOR FAMILY PLANNING
MEDICINE HEALTH WELFARE (PER CAPITA)
FOODSTUFF (PER CAPITA)
EXTENT OF THE POLLUTION
CULTURE RECREATION & ATHLETIC ACCOMMODATION
LABOUR FORCE IN URBAN
EDUCATED POPULATION IN URBAN
HOUSING AREA PER CAPIT
POPULATION IN URBAN
(+)
(-)
NUMBERS OF WOMEN IN THEIR BIRTH AGE
DEATH RATE
(-)
LIFE EXPECTANCY
URGENTNESS OF POPULATION CONTROL
BIRTH RATE
POPULATION CONTROL POLICY
FUND FOR FAMILY PLANNING
MEDICINE HEALTH WELFARE (PER CAPITA)
FOODSTUFF (PER CAPITA)
EXTENT OF THE POLLUTION
CULTURE RECREATION & ATHLETIC ACCOMMODATION

FIG. 1 THE CAUSAL BACKFEEDING SKETCH OF THE POPULATION SUBMODEL

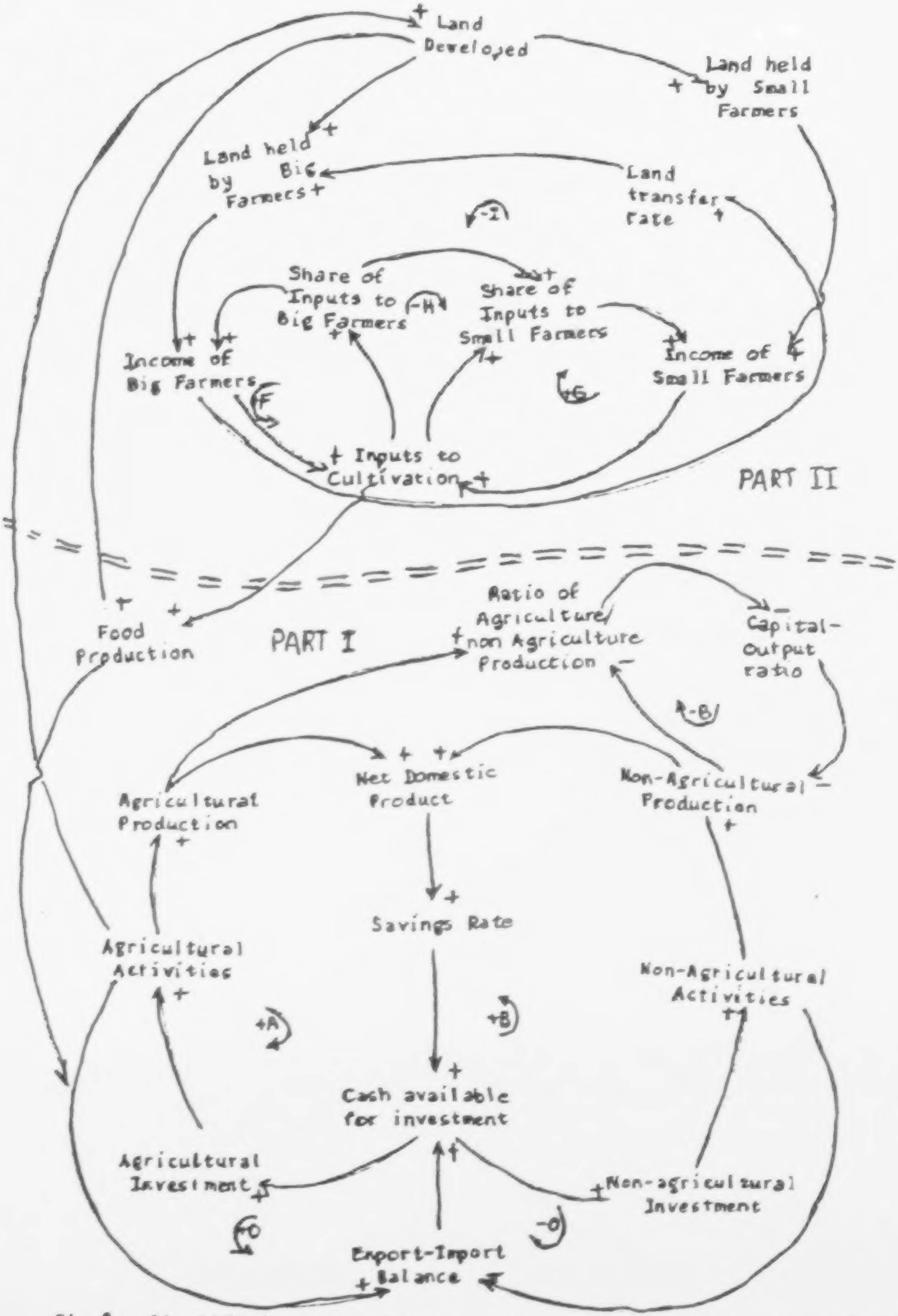

Land Developed
Land held by Small Farmers
Land held by Big Farmers
Land transfer rate
-I
Share of Inputs to Big Farmers
-H
Share of Inputs to Small Farmers
Income of Big Farmers
Income of Small Farmers
F
+G
Inputs to Cultivation
PART II
Food Production
PART I
Ratio of Agriculture/non Agriculture Production
Capital-output ratio
-B
Net Domestic Product
Agricultural Production
Non-Agricultural Production
Savings Rate
Agricultural Activities
Non-Agricultural Activities
+A
+B
Cash available for investment
Agricultural Investment
Non-agricultural Investment
+C
-D
Export-Import Balance

Fig.2: Simplified overall influence diagram of national development model.

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II. INTERDISCIPLINARY LANGUAGE AND BUSINESS PROGRAM

INTERNATIONAL AREA STUDIES
AND
COOPERATIVE EDUCATION
AT
DREXEL UNIVERSITY

by Jody Tao
March 8, 1988

In 1985, Drexel University introduced International Area Studies as an undergraduate major in its College of Humanities and Social Sciences. IAS was conceived as an interdisciplinary curriculum, including required coursework from the departments of foreign languages, history and politics, sociology and anthropology and business administration. Students elect one or more foreign languages from French, Spanish, German, Italian, Chinese, Japanese and Russian. In addition to the language, each student's program includes appropriate studies in geography, history, politics and economics of the associated world region, i.e. Europe, Latin America or Asia. The course is rounded out with a group of business administration courses including International Marketing, International Trade and Finance, etc. (Appendix #1).

All languages offered start with beginner level courses and progress to Business and Professional usage. These upper level courses are in a self-instructional format whereby students work independently with tapes and meet twice weekly with native speakers. In these small classes, students have discussions entirely in the target language of newpaper articles, current events and business news. Emphasis is on development of business and professional vocabulary and oral proficiency. A Certificate of Proficiency is offered in each foreign language to students who have taken at least one upper division course. Testing for the certificate is conducted by outside examiners and includes standardized tests as well. Details of the certificate requirements are included in appendix #2.

To put the IAS curriculum in the context of Drexel University is to also include a mandatory cooperative education requirement. Since 1919, Drexel has been fundamentally organized around the idea of cooperative education, and now operates the nation's second largest program, annually placing over five thousand students with more than two thousand employers, primarily in the Philadelphia area. The introduction of the IAS curriculum brought with it the need to utilize and expand this already extensive network of employers. The academic portion of the major is designed to prepare students for careers in the Foreign Service, with international agencies and with multinational business concerns. Through cooperative education students are able to build skills which will also help qualify them for these types of careers. IAS students at Drexel may elect either a five year program which

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includes eighteen months of co-op, usually in three six-month assignments, or a four year program which includes one six-month coop assignment. The great majority of students are in the five year program. It is expected that many of these students will spend their first two coop periods in the U.S., and then go abroad for the final assignment. Although Drexel's existing job bank included many positions which offered opportunities to develop relevant skills, we have undertaken to develop more jobs, both domestic and international, which would be more specifically related to students' foreign language or international interests.

This project was undertaken with a variety of approaches. In some cases employers were encouraged to take advantage of IAS students' skills by making changes in job responsibilities. For example, the world headquarters of the Catholic Library Association had maintained a Drexel co-op position in which the incumbent managed several data bases, and did some techincal writing and desktop publishing. Usually a computer science or communications major had been selected for the position. However, as some of the publications to be included in the data base were in foreign languages, knowledge of a foreign language was considered an asset, and IAS students were encouraged to apply. Soon the Catholic Library Association was utilizing the IAS students for international marketing projects, as they began a campaign to increase their membership in Europe and Latin America. Our students were helpful in composing correspondence in Spanish and Italian to prospective members while at the same time were gaining useful computer and library skills.

Other longtime Drexel co-op employers with international interests have been encouraged to consider establishing new positions which will help them take advantage of IAS students' unique set of skills. The neighboring University of Pennsylvania is one of the largest employers of Drexel co-op students from a great variety of disciplines from computer science to interior design. Our IAS curriculum opened opportunities in a completely different area - Wharton school's U.S.-Japan Management Studies Center. A position as Assistant to the Director of this office was a natural for IAS majors with a Japanese concentration and to date six of these students have taken advantage of this opportunity. In this position, students develop basic office management skills, and are to some extent exposed to current scholarly

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research on U.S-Japan business relations. In addition they have the cultural experience of working for a Japanese director, and opportunities to practice their Japanese and to meet the many Japanese businessmen who visit the Center for consultations or conferences.

Other successful developments in this category include expansion of positions at the Greater Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce from one to eight, including one in the international trade division. Even those in other departments, such as marketing or communications are considered relevant, as they increase students' overall awareness of the business community in the Philadelphia area and thus establish a frame of reference to which students may apply their studies of international economics.

To further develop more specifically relevant coop opportunities, a brochure was developed by the IAS department head summarizing the background and skills of the IAS students. (Appendix 3) This was mailed out to several hundred employers in the Philadelphia area with international businesses with a cover letter from the University President encouraging these organizations to consider the advantages of employing these students.

International co-op development was quite another matter, as we had no job bank to start with. Initially, it was hoped that multinational corporations would be willing to hire our co-op students domestically for one or both of the first two co-op periods and then assign them abroad for the final period. We quickly learned that the U.S. company has little or (usually) no say in personnel decisions at this level in international divisions. Further, these large corporations have little or no willingness to deal with the complicated logistics of negotiating job descriptions and arranging work permits for entry-level personnel. Most importantly, the multinationals generally find it politically undesirable to send American students to overseas locations for entry level positions which the local community feels should be available to local residents. Although there were a few lukewarm exceptions to the above attitude, it was clear that most positions abroad would have to be arranged through other means.

From the outset, it was established that the international co-op development would not be limited to positions for IAS students. Since international co-operative education experiences can be beneficial to students in any discipline, we have attempted to develop positions in a

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variety of fields in countries of greatest student interest, including English-speaking countries. There are advantages to this policy for the university as a whole as well as for the International Area Studies program. First, by making international co-op available to students throughout the six colleges of the university, we have more to offer all Drexel students, and become a more attractive choice for prospective students. Secondly, all development, even that in disciplines and in countries which do not directly relate to the International Area Studies curriculum, expands our network and reputation. Sometimes seemingly unrelated contacts can eventually lead to a good position somewhere for an IAS student.

For instance, a large international marketing research firm headquartered in London with branch offices in twenty-eight other countries has become interested in employing Drexel co-op students as research assistants. Since we always have a great number of marketing majors eager to co-op in London, it is easy to keep the London office supplied with students from the business college whereas we will only occasionally have an IAS student in a given language with a specific interest in marketing research. By maintaining an on-going relationship with the parent company, we are better able to interest the Madrid or Munich office in an occasional placement.

Basically, we have utilized two approaches to international job development - reciprocal exchange agreements and direct placements with employers abroad. Each approach has pros and cons and each has been successful for Drexel. Our present plans call for continuation of development of both types of placements.

The reciprocal exchange approach is ideal in many ways. Philosophically, it recognizes the need for foreign national students to train in the U.S. and is responsive to this need. The international trainees brought to the U.S. through this type of program bring an added international dimension to our campus and are an excellent resource for Drexel students who will be going abroad in the future as well as those who may not have the opportunity to co-op abroad during their undergraduate years. From a more practical standpoint, the reciprocal exchange model puts the details of the placement into the hands of a local institution which is very familiar with the potential employers as well as all the peripheral considerations such as housing

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and transportation. Since each institution has relations with a number of employers, there are increased possibilities of matching the student's background and interests fairly closely. Probably the most important advantage of these arrangements is the availability of a local support person for students on program. These persons can provide support to the student's cultural adjustment, mediate any misunderstandings with employers and provide help with locating routine or emergency services. Finally, through this type of exchange it is easiest to secure government permission for students to be employed.

There are not really any drawbacks to this model, but it must be recognized that it can be quite expensive and time-consuming to place and support the incoming students and therefore a serious institutional commitment is required to maintain a quality program.

It is necessary to establish a J-1 trainee program with the USIA in order to bring the exchangees into the U.S. And of course it is essential that excellent communication exist between program coordinators of each institution and that student qualifications and position descriptions meet clearly defined standards. Personal meetings and visits to each other's institutions are strongly recommended for establishment of agreements and communications. Although follow-up visits on an annual or bi-annual basis are desirable, they may not be strictly necessary if a good basis of communication has been established.

Placing students directly with employers eliminates the need to place incoming students, but invites other concerns such as providing support services and arranging work permits. In many cases we have found the means to solve these problems and than have been able to approach companies with assurances that they will not have to deal with those types of complications. The next step is to establish credibility and rapport directly with hiring managers. Since we were not a local institution that local business might feel some obligation to support, it was essential to convince the companies that our students could be relied upon to provide quality work that was worth the compensation that we asked for. It is helpful to find a niche where a particular skill is in demand in a particular country. By concentrating in broad areas such as accounting and market research in this development we can assure employers of a steady supply of qualified student applicants. By developing these direct placements, we can make international placements available to more Drexel students without having to stretch our resources for placing international students in the U.S. Helpful resources for direct job development have been our alumni abroad, the

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Council for International Educational Exchange, and the U.S.-Japan Management Studies Center of the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania.

Clearly the most challenging country in which to develop the international co-op program has been Japan. We feel that there are good possibilities for developing positions directly with Japanese companies, but that because of the extreme differences in culture, it is essential for students to have reliable support services. Accordingly, we have asked Japanese companies to provide a comprehensive package of support services, including company housing, to our co-op students. We are hopeful that this approach will be possible in Japan because of the generally holistic attitude towards employees' welfare which exists in Japanese companies. After initial exploratory visits to five companies in Tokyo last fall we are optimistic about beginning a program there in the near future. Our proposal to these companies, in English and Japanese is included in appendix #4.

The selection of participating students is also essential to the overall quality of the program. Although our selection process is fairly complex, the principles behind it are simple: to select students who are most likely to have a successful and rewarding experience while serving as good representatives of Drexel University and of the United States. Good candidates are bright, motivated and industrious. They are good communicators who have a positive regard for others, good peer relationships and a healthy sense of humor. They are mature and comfortable with adults. They are responsible and resourceful. Our international co-op application (appendix #5) is designed to assess these characteristics for each applicant.

Normally, all interviewing is conducted by the international co-op coordinator. The student's written application and recommendations are reviewed before the interview, and areas of interest or concern are probed during the interview. Interview results along with some or all of the written application are then relayed to employer or program coordinator at cooperating institution. It is a delicate situation, as one must at the same time represent the interests of the student, helping him put his best foot forward without deceiving the employer as to any deficiencies noted during the interview or overstating the student's qualifications. A trusting relationship with both students and employers/institutions is essential. Final placements are then

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confirmed, either directly with employers or with cooperating institutions.

All international co-op students are required to participate in pre-departure and re-entry orientation programs. We are indebted to the orientation staff of Youth for Understanding International Student Exchange for several outstanding sessions which have been adapted for our purposes. Sessions from YFU publications *Planning and Conducting Pre-departure Orientations* and *Planning and Conducting Re-entry Orientations* are used to help prepare students to anticipate and cope with culture shock and the adjustment cycle. *Meet the Critic*, originally developed by Charles Vetters for the State Department includes exercises to help students develop techniques to cope with tough questions about the U.S. which they may encounter abroad. Returnees from previous terms are always invited to share their experiences. *Going International* films are also included in our orientations. *Bridging the Culture Gap* and *Managing the Overseas Assignment* are part of pre-departure programs; *Welcome Home, Stranger* is used at re-entry.

At the re-entry orientation, students evaluate the overall international co-op experience by completing a comprehensive questionnaire (appendix #6). Through these evaluations, we learn which aspects of the program are working well from the students' point of view, and which have room for improvement. Through this evaluation, students have come up with many excellent suggestions which have since been implemented in our program. The evaluations also confirm that our goals are being met. Students report that their jobs are good, almost always better than their previous co-ops in the U.S., and that the experience of living and working abroad as undergraduates is of substantial significance to their lives. Some report loving every moment, and experiencing almost no adjustment difficulties; others report significant struggles with homesickness and other aspects of culture shock. All the students report that to some degree their perspective on the world and on the U.S. has changed; but it is worth noting that the one consistent factor among students returning from all counties, from various positions in many different disciplines is that all give the highest possible rating to their improvement in self-knowledge. We are pleased that this is the most consistently observed benefit to students, for we feel that as one stands on the threshold of adulthood, a good knowlege of oneself is one of the

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most valuable assets possible.

Our program is young; it is still relatively small. Our plans for the future include expansion in Europe and Australia, and development in Japan and Latin America. We also plan to track participants for several years to assess the effect of this experience on their career paths. We look forward to providing exceptional international co-operative education experiences to many Drexel University students far into the future. And we look forward to continuing to provide a variety of opportunities, domestic and international, which will help prepare our International Area Studies majors for careers in a world of increasing global interdependence.

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International Area Studies

Majors in international area studies select a major world area in which they wish to concentrate, and designate a language appropriate to that area. A student specializing in Europe can choose French, German, Italian, or Russian, while the Far Eastern concentration requires the study of Chinese or Japanese; the Latin American area, Spanish. Beyond the basic University and college requirements, students take courses from four concentrations: language, patterns of civilization, the historical and political framework, and the economic and business dimension.

The international area studies major is designed for students interested in a career in the international arena or those interested in going on to professional or graduate school. The interdisciplinary curriculum combines a comprehensive liberal arts education with the skills and knowledge needed for international employment in both the public and private sectors. It emphasizes a broad background in the political history, culture, and social conditions of world regions, advanced work in area languages, and in-depth study of international economics and businesses.

Freshman Year

First Term	17 credits
N501 Calculus I	4
or	
N540 Introduction to Analysis I	4
R101 Composition	3
Language sequence (R700s)	4
Philosophy (R500 or R503)	3
S207 The 20th-Century World	3
U201/301 Physical Education (men/women)	0

Second Term	18 credits
N502 Calculus II	4
or	
N541 Introduction to Analysis II	4
R102 Reading and Research	3
Language sequence (R700s)	4
S208 The 20th-Century World	3
B417 Principles of Economics I	4
U202/302 Physical Education (men/women)	0

Third Term	17 credits
N602 Computer Programming	3
or	
N611 Computer Programming	3
or	
N616 Fundamental COBOL Programming	3
R103 Techniques of Analysis and Evaluation	3
Language sequence (R700s)	4
B418 Economics II	4
Geographical area course	3
U203/303 Physical Education (men/women)	0

Sophomore Year	30–32 credits
Laboratory science I (N215, N405, N711)	4
Laboratory science II (N216, N406, N712)	4
Language sequence (R700s)	8
R122 Masterworks of Western Literature III	3
R124 Masterworks of Non-Western Literature II	3
or	
R125 Selected Topics in World Literature	3
S630 Quantitative Analysis in History and Politics	3
or	
S936 Introduction to Research Methods	3
S643 International Politics	4
S740 General Psychology I	3

Pre-Junior Year	34–36 credits
Language sequence (R700s)	6-7
S676 Politics of Developing Nations	3
R278 Writing for Business	3
S421 Introduction to Music	3
B435 International Business	3
or	
B438 Economic Development	4
S934 Introduction to Anthropology	3
Culture and Values I	3
B434 International Trade and Finance	4
International Law	3
Free elective	3

Junior Year	33 credits
S672 Comparative Government	3
History-politics elective	3
Music or art elective (J161, J162, or S427)	3
S920 Introduction to Sociology	4
Psychology, sociology, or anthropology elective (S752, S921, or S935)	3
Business Ethics	3
Political Risk Analysis	3
S675 Economic Geography	3
International marketing or international economics sequence (B715, B733 or B440 and B419 or B420)	8

Senior Year	32 credits
Culture and Values II	2
R201 Theory and Models of Communication	3
Patterns of civilization electives	12
History-politics electives	6
Literature or philosophy elective	3
Communications elective	3
Free elective	3

Minor in International Area Studies

The area studies minor provides, for students in other disciplines, training and skills suitable for professional employment in the international sector. The minor requires 24 credit hours, 12 of which must be in a designated geographical area of focus, and study through term IV of an appropriate foreign language. S675 Economic Geography, S881 Culture and Values, B434 International Trade and Finance, and either B435 International Business or B733 International Marketing are also required.

DEPARTMENT OF HUMANITIES AND COMMUNICATIONS

CERTIFICATION OF PROFICIENCY

Purpose:

Formal certification of proficiency recognizes exceptional ability and performance in the target language. It enhances the possibilities for positions with multinational corporations, for careers that involve frequent contact with foreign nationals, and for positions that require living and working in the country or countries in which the target language is spoken.

Description:

With the exception of students in Chinese and Japanese, students who have completed foreign language study at Level VII or above, or the equivalent of such study, may elect to take a series of special examinations leading to a Certification of Proficiency in that language. Students in Chinese and Japanese may elect to take the necessary exminations on completion of Level V. Whenever possible, testing will include the standard ETS Achievement Test, on which the student must score at the 680 level or above; an extended oral interview using the Foreign Service Institute or ACTFL format; an examination designed to evaluate listening comprehension of the language as it is used in formal communication (i.e. news broadcasts, speeches, etc.) in the country or countries of origin; and examinations in reading comprehension and written communication at the advanced level.

Testing is administered by outside examiners, under the auspices of the College of Humanities and Social Sciences and the Department of Humanities and Communications.

Certification is issued by the University and entered on the student's official college transcript.

Any student of the University who has been enrolled for at least one term of foreign language study at Drexel at Level VII or above, or at Level V or above in Chinese and Japanese, is eligible to take the Proficiency examinations. Certification will be issued only in those foreign languages offered in the University curriculum.

Certification of Proficiency

Eligibility : Any regularly enrolled student of the University who has taken at least one term of the target language at Level VII or above in French, German, Italian, Russian or Spanish, or at Level V or above in Chinese or Japanese.

Level of difficulty : Certification examinations, which are exit-level examinations for the Advanced year of language study, are designed for students who are proficient enough to function independently over an extended period of time in a country where the target laguage is spoken.

Components of the examination :

1. ETS Achievement Test (for all languages except Chinese and Japanese, for which special Proficiency Tests have been developed). On the ETS Achievement Test, a minimum score of 680 is required. Successful completion of the Achievement Test, or its equivalent, qualifies students to take the other examinations required for Certification.

2. An oral interview. The interview will be conducted by a trained examiner and an assistant examiner, one of whom must be a native speaker and the other a non-native speaker who is proficient in the target language. The interview will follow Foreign Service Institute and/or ACTFL guidelines. This interview is an extended form of the proficiency component of the Self-Instructional examinations at the Advanced levels of language study at Drexel University. Candidates for Proficiency Certification must receive a "2" or better on the oral interview.

3. A listening comprehension test. The student will listen to an extended portion of a news broadcast, radio or television interview or formal speech in the target language. Questions based on this selection will be in the target language; usually, answers are required to be in English.

4. A reading comprehension test. The student will read two passages, one literary and the other non-literary or technical, and will answer questions on these passages.

5. A test in written communication. Students will be required to write a presentation in the target language, usually based on an English text dealing with a subject about which students may be expected to have some general knowledge.

Grading: Students must pass three of the four advanced-level comprehension and communication examinations with a grade of 80 or above; they must test at the required level of the ETS Achievement Test (or its equivalent) and receive at least a "2" on the oral interview. The composite score for the Proficiency examinations is weighted 60/40 in favor of oral proficiency.

Certification: Certification of Proficiency in the target language is issued by the College of Humanities and Social Sciences and is entered on the student's official transcript. Students receive a Certificate of Proficiency at the advanced level of study, together with an evaluation of the level of performance on the examinations required for certification.

International Cooperative Education Assignment: For students seeking cooperative education assignment abroad, the Certification of Proficiency is indicative of a student's ability to function on a professional level in situations where the target language is the language of the workplace.

Native Speakers: Native speakers of the target language are eligible to enroll in Level VI(Business and Professional) and above. They may take the examinations leading to Certification of Proficiency in their native language after the completion of at least one course at the Advanced level of study, but only under conditions to be determined by the Dean of the College, the Head of the Department of Humanities and Communications, and the Coordinator of the Foreign Language Programs.

Testing Dates: The proficiency examinations are given at regular intervals, usually during each academic cycle and/or at least once a year.

Students are not required to take the examinations at the end of a term in which they are enrolled in formal course work but should certainly do so within one term of the completion of their foreign language study.

Testing is adminstered by the Department of Humanities and Communications under the supervision of the Coordinator of Foreign Language Programs.

Drexel University

Center for
Cooperative Education
(215) 895-2185

Drexel University • Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19104

安田信託銀行 株式会社 御中

PROPOSAL: INTERNSHIPS FOR DREXEL UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AT YASUDA BANK AND TRUST COMPANY

College of Business and Administration
College of Humanities and Social Sciences
College of Information Studies
College of Engineering • College of Science
Nesbitt College of Design Arts • The University College

Qualifications of students. Students will bring to companies useful skills and work experience in accounting, finance, marketing, technical writing, computer programming, and other fields. Student applicants for the international cooperative education program are subject to a rigorous selection process. Selected candidates will have excellent academic records and will have performed successfully at one or two previous co-op assignments. Students are also screened for personal characteristics predictive of success in intercultural living and receive appropriate orientation before departure. International Area Studies majors will have achieved Certification of Proficiency in the Japanese language. A description of this proficiency level is attached. Students majoring in business and administration, computer science and other fields may have studied Japanese to a lesser degree or not at all. For these students, prospective employers may specify the degree of Japanese proficiency required. Most co-op students are undergraduates. A small number of MBA students may be available.

Decision dates. Resumes of selected students will be sent to participating companies four to six months before beginning of proposed internship. We ask the company to make a decision on each student's candidacy no less than three months before the beginning of proposed internship. Students must accept or decline a position within one week of offer.

Visas and Work permits. The realization of a proposed internship will depend on the arrangement of an appropriate visa and work permit by the company.

Compensation. We propose that students be paid salaries comparable to Japanese nationals doing similar work and that the employer also provide accomodations in company dormitories, daily meals and a commuter pass. Students will be responsible for their own international transportation costs.

Japanese nationals at Drexel University. There is a small number of Japanese national students earning degrees at Drexel University. They may complete their cooperative education requirements either in the U.S. or in Japan. Interested employers are invited to submit requests for Japanese national co-op students.

Further information on International Cooperative Education at Drexel University contact:

Mrs. Jody Tao
Coordinator, International Cooperative Education
Drexel University
Philadelphia, PA 19104 USA

telephone: 215-895-2192
FAX: 215-895-1414

Drexel University and Cooperative Education. Drexel University in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania operates one of the oldest and the second largest cooperative education program in the United States. Under this program Drexel students typically spend eighteen months in full time pre-professional employment related to their fields of study during their five undergraduate years. Every year over four thousand students complete cooperative education assignments in the fields of Business and Administration, Engineering, Science, Information Studies, Humanities and Design Arts.

In 1986, as a part of a university-wide internationalization of all its programs and curricula, Drexel University instituted an International Cooperative Education program. Through this program, Drexel students have successfully completed more than twenty internships in Europe, Latin America, Israel and Australia with such companies as IBM, Siemens, Morgan Stanley, Deloitte, Haskins and Sells, Esso Chemicals, ICI, DuPont, and others. We now invite a small number of companies in Japan to participate in Drexel's International Cooperative Education program by offering internships to one or more Drexel students beginning in 1988 or 1989.

Purpose of proposed internship program. International Cooperative Education enhances the education of our students by providing unique opportunities for personal and professional growth through living and working abroad. For those students majoring in Japanese language and Area Studies, the program will clearly provide the best possible opportunity to improve language skills, experience the Japanese culture, and increase students' knowledge of Japanese business practices. In this age of ever-increasing global interdependence, international cooperative education provides opportunities for increased understanding between Japanese companies and future American leaders of business and industry. Through the international cooperative education program, companies may identify outstanding students who may be considered for permanent employment, either in Japan or in the United States, upon graduation.

Dates and length of internships. Students are available to begin internships in January, April, July and October for periods of six to twelve months. Twelve month internships can be most conveniently arranged if they begin in April.

逆に、Drexel大学で学位を取得したい方が、いらっしゃいましたら、歓迎、致します。種々のプログラムがございます。

なお、更に深く、私共の趣旨を御理解頂く為に、私、自ら、10月9日から10月12日迄の予定で、訪日、致します。その折に、お目にかかれる事を楽しみにしておりますので、何卒、宜しく、お願い申し上げます。

敬具
ジョディ・タオ

拝啓　時下、益々、御清祥の段、お慶び申し上げます。

突然のお便り、お許し下さい。私共、Drexel大学では、学生に、日本での、勤務実習の機会を与えてゆくつもりです。その場を、御社に、提供して頂ければ、と思いまして、お手紙、差し上げました。日本語で要点、のみ、説明させて頂きますが、英文の方も御一読、願えましたら、幸いです。

Drexel大学は、ペンシルバニア州フィラデルフィア市にあり、実社会に密着した、伝統的な、勤務実習プログラムは、全米、第2の規模を誇ります。大学は5年制で、内18ヶ月間は、専門分野に関係のある、職場で働きます。大学の国際化に伴って、1986年には、この勤務実習の場を海外にも求める事とし、既にヨーロッパ、南米、イスラエル、オーストラリアにおいて、IBM、Siemens、Morgan Stanley等の会社の御協力により、実施して参りました。日本語や日本研究を専攻する学生にとって、格好の実習場所となるはずの、日本企業各社に、1988年か1989年を目標に、今度は是非とも、お受け入れをお願い致します。

Japanese Specialization in the MIBS Program:
Business Japanese and Internship Training

Yoshitaka Sakakibara
University of South Carolina

Paper presented at the Seventh Annual Conference on Languages and Communication for World and the Professions

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Introduction

Business between Japan and the United States has become the largest and most important bilateral economic relationship in the world economy. Japanese investments in the United States have been rapidly increasing, there are now over 6,000 Japanese corporations located in the United States. Americans are, in turn, making advances in the Japanese market.

Given these circumstances, there is a great need to educate business people who have a working knowledge of both cultures and languages, and who can interact effectively in conducting business between the two countries. In the United States especially, the need to educate bilingual and bicultural business executives is critical.

The University of South Carolina added the Japanese specialization to it's Master of International Business Studies (MIBS) program in 1982. The curriculum of the three-year Japanese specialization in MIBS requires intensive Japanese language training both in Japan and in the United States, and a six-to-seven month internship training at a company in Japan, all in addition to the completion of an intensive internationalized business program.

This paper, based on the author's experience as a language instructor and internship promoter in Japan, briefly describes this unique interdisciplinary program which specializes in Japanese business. The paper also discusses the two characteristic features of the program: intensive Japanese language training and internship training in Japan.

The MIBS Program and its Japanese Specialization

The University of South Carolina (USC) began offering a two-year professional degree, the Master of International Business Studies (MIBS) program in 1974. It is an interdepartmental program, and faculty members from the Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Government and International Studies, Geography and the College of Business Administration jointly instruct the graduate students. In order to provide a complete training program for future managers of international business, it's rigorous curriculum focuses on four areas of development: 1) analytical and problem-solving ability in the international business environment; 2) foreign language proficiency; 3) cultural sensitivity and 4) overseas work experience. Students are required to complete an intensive business curriculum and to develop significant foreign language and area studies competencies.

In 1982, three-year specializations in Japanese and Arabic were added to the pre-existing two-year MIBS programs in German, Spanish, French, Portuguese and English (for foreign nationals). Two new language specializations, Korean and Italian, will be added to the program in 1989 and 1990 respectively.

Today, with more than 250 students and 900 alumni, MIBS is the largest graduate program in international business of any school accredited by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB).

MIB's Japanese track, however, maintains a relatively small size enrollment in order to provide more effective training to the students. Approximately 15 students with high GPA and GMAT scores, and some work experience, are selected from among a large number of applicants. Previous study of the Japanese language is not required, but normally more than half of the students have had some experience with Japanese, including some students who have lived in Japan.

Language Training - Business Japanese

Development of significant language competency is an essential part of the MIBS program. Due to the nature of Japanese culture and its language - being non Western and non Indo-European, students in the Japanese track are required to spend an especially substantial amount of their time and energy becoming proficient in the language. By the time the students complete the program they will have spent at least three years studying Japanese, including a year-and-a-half of study in Japan.

The basic structure of the Japanese language program in the MIBS program is as follows:

Phase 1. First 8 week Intensive Summer Training

Phase 2. Two semesters of intensive international business courses and Japanese business language studies

Phase 3. Second 8 week Intensive Summer Training

Phase 4. Two semester of study at a university in Japan

Phase 5. Actual utilization and continued learning of business Japanese through a 6-7 month internship

Prior to the first summer of intensive language training, the students are given a placement exam to determine at which level, beginning, intermediate or advanced, they will study. The enrollment in each section is kept small in order to provide effective instruction. Three instructors and four or five graduate assistants conduct these sections. All of the instructors and graduate assistants are experienced language instructors, and, they are all natives of Japan.

The students are trained in four basic skills of the language; the emphasis however is placed on the development of oral communication skills. Daily instruction also includes the study of the Japanese culture, society, and business, by means of films and video materials.

Each day, from Monday through Friday, students spend seven hours in the classroom. In addition, the students usually have at least five hours of home studies. The students are given a quiz every day in addition to mid-term exams and a final exam. The grading policy for the program is strict. Normally, one or two students fail the summer training with an unsatisfactory grade, and are asked to withdraw from the program.

During the fall and spring semesters, the main emphasis is placed on the study of business Japanese. The students study the vocabulary and expressions used in business settings, and also become familiar with the basic business environment in Japan. Throughout the study of business Japanese, the important points of Japanese business and customs, such as interpersonal relationships at work, decision-making, negotiation, etc. are discussed. For the advanced students, the study of Newspaper Japanese is also introduced, the students are assigned to read a few articles in the Japanese newspaper every week. It is reported by most of the students returning from Japan, that the business Japanese they studied during this phase was very useful to them during their internship training.

Because of the study of the intensive internationalized business curricula during the fall and spring semesters, the students do not have enough time for intensive language study. (An average of five to eight hours per night are spent for home studies of the business curriculum.) Therefore, three credit hours per week are devoted to language study. The MIBS students are often likened to the Japanese students who are preparing for a competitive entrance exam to a top university.

Before going to Japan, the students receive the second intensive summer training of the Japanese language. The structure of the second summer program is similar to that of the first summer except for the inclusion of the review of the business Japanese.

When the Japanese track students go to Japan they are currently being sent to the Japanese language program at either Waseda University or International Christian University in Tokyo, for their additional year of language study. All of the MIBS students are usually placed at either the advanced or the upper-intermediate level at these institutions. Advanced students have the added opportunity to attend lectures on Japanese business, economy, and history if they wish to do so.

Sometimes, the students are dissatisfied with the language program at these universities due to the fact that these programs tend to put more weight on the writing and reading of Japanese. Nonetheless the study at a Japanese university provides MIBS students with a beneficial experience in learning about Japan.

While attending the Japanese university, some students live in the company dormitory of their assigned internship company, while many others share apartments with Japanese university students. The students also begin to communicate in Japanese with the staff members of their assigned internship company. These living arrangements and the communication with the internship company help to enhance the student's study of the language to a great extent. Hence, students develop considerable competencies of the language during this phase.

By the time the students begin their internship at the company in Japan, they are able to communicate reasonably well in Japanese with the Japanese staff. The proficiency in technical and professional communication, however, is developed during the internship training. The interns are normally required to read and write business documents and/or memoranda written in Japanese, and, very often, are asked to translate text into either English or Japanese.

The ultimate goal of the Japanese language training in the MIBS program is to train students to be able to function, not only in daily living communication in Japan, but also to be able to conduct business with their Japanese counterparts. This goal may seem ambitious, but, in fact, the majority of the graduates have attained this goal. The results of the oral proficiency exams given to the students upon returning from their assignments in Japan, and the internship evaluation completed by the internship supervisors in Japan, have indicated that the returnees' level of Japanese proficiency has reached the superior (ACTFL) level.

Internship Training in Japan

The internship training is an important and integral part of the student's training for a position in an international enterprise. It provides an opportunity to test the student's capability to apply the business and Japanese knowledge he has gained throughout the study in the program, and, to examine his ability to adapt effectively to a work situation at a company in Japan. Many sponsoring companies find the internship to be an excellent means of evaluating and recruiting the student for potential employment. Other companies consider an intern as a valuable resource in the internationalization of their operations, or as temporary support that may needed for a specific project.

The six-to-seven-month internship is designed to included 'real work' experience, meaning that companies sponsoring an intern should utilize the student in day-to-day operations and/or on a project task force.

During the internship period, the students do not receive a salary due to the fact that the internship is a requirement of the MIBS degree and interns are enrolled, during that time, at the University of South Carolina. Rather, the internship companies are asked to make a predetermined donation to the University, of which the student receives 90% as a scholarship.

The placement of the student interns is arranged by the staff of the MIBS program, in particular the internship promotor, and it very often requires time-consuming effort. The initial internship discussion with a company usually takes place over a year before actual placement. Matching the interest and need of the company with those of the student is not an easy task; good 'nemawashi', grand work, is required. Also, the perception of and the accomodation for the internship often differs between Japanese companies and their American counterparts. Developing an internship opportunity at Japanese companies tends to be more difficult and more time consuming than at American companies.

Almost all the large Japanese companies have their own staff training programs. And, in regard to internships, some companies, especially manufacturing companies in the high tech field, sponsor interns from developing countries, providing them with the necessary knowledge and skills. It is almost alien to most companies to sponsor interns in the field of business management.

It is a rather recent phenomenon that large Japanese corporations consider positively the sponsorship of internships to foreign students in their international operations. Accomodating foreign students with non-technical internships therefore depends upon the company. Companies like Sony, Hitachi and New Japan Securities have set up internship programs for foreign students, and positively sponsor the MIBS internship.

The situation, on the other hand, for American or European companies in Japan is different. More and more, foreign companies have been cracking into the lucrative markets of Japan, especially the banks and securities firms since the deregulation of Japan's financial markets. Many such companies suffer from an insufficient number of bilingual/bicultural staff with international business knowlege who are able to conduct business in Japan effectively. Under such circumstances, the MIBS students are more readily accepted as interns, and often receive job offers from the internship company after the completion of the program.

As was mentioned above, the structure of, and assignments for the internship vary depending upon the company. Japanese companies tend to provide students with more general training in a number of functional areas or departments, and have them assist in their international operations. Whereas American companies tend to assign more specific projects to the students and utilize them to assist in their operations in Japan. Working as merely a bilingual assistant to the company is avoided as much as possible.

There are quite a few types of assignments that students have had as interns. Some of them have worked as market analysts, financial analysts, and import/export assistants.

In the first phase of the internship training, the students are typically asked to study the company, and to familiarize themselves with its structure, functions, personnel, etc. Students, especially at the Japanese company, are often treated as if they were hired into a specific department as a regular employee. Or, there have been cases when a student has allowed to participate in the company's new employee orientation, affording him a glimpse into how Japanese college graduates are indoctrinated into the corporation.

An example of one type of internship assignment is the experience of a student who had an internship at a foreign securities firm in Tokyo. He was involved in assignments in the four major divisions of the firm: Equities Research and Sales; Bond Sales and Trading; Swaps and Special Transactions; and Corporate Finance. The first two months were spent in the equities research and sales side. The intern's assignments included:

- the daily preparation and presentation of an international market news summary to the morning meeting of securities analysts and sales staff.
- the daily translation of Japanese newspaper articles for an international news service.

- preparation of the financial data for Swiss franc bond issues.
- report on the Nikkei 500 companies and their sectoral breakdowns by market capitalization.
- numerous client visits with the firm's securities analysts.
- study of the Japanese oil refining industry, culminating it's publication in weekly report on the deregulation of the industry.

Two students who had internships at a Japanese securities firm also, during their internships, took the Japanese brokerage exam and successfully received their Japanese Security Brokers license.

Toward the end of the internship, the sponsoring companies are asked to complete an internship evaluation of the students. All of the companies, up to the present, have indicated that the internship experience was very beneficial to them, and most of them have shown an interest in continuing to sponsor the MIBS internship.

In the same way, the students who have completed the internship have reported that their experience in Japan was an invaluable contribution toward their future career.

Upon returning to the University of South Carolina after the internship, some students have already accepted a job offer from their internship company, while most of the other students are in the final stages of deciding their job placement. The MIBS Japanese track graduates have had great success in obtaining employment which enables them to utilize their acquired skills and experiences. In fact, the majority of the graduates are now working for Japanese companies in the U.S., or for American companies in Japan.

Conclusion

It has been only six years since the Japanese specialization was added to the MIBS program at the University of South Carolina, nevertheless the program has been quite successful and continues to evolve. Similar programs have been established at other institutions in recent years, however, the Japanese track of the MIBS program remains unique with it's intensive Japanese language and business Japanese training, intensive internationalized business program, and the internship training in Japan.

In the current economic and business situation which exists between Japan and the United States, international business programs like the Japanese track of the MIBS program are becoming more important, and the need to educate students who can interact effectively in their future work between the two countries is rapidly increasing. Consequently, the job offers from Japanese companies in the United States, and American companies in Japan are on the rise. Almost all of the graduates of the program are engaged in business between Japan and the United States. Their bilingual knowledge and expertise in international business both here and abroad have been reported to be very useful in leading to their success in business.

Due to it's intensive nature, program is considered to be a challenge for students to successfully complete. Also, due to the fact that the Japanese track in MIBS is a three year program, a year-and-a-half of which is spent in Japan, getting the MIBS degree in the Japanese specialization can be described as an investment both physically and spiritually. Nonetheless, it is not an exaggeration to state that the study of this program can provide one of the most effective and productive ways of becoming international businessmen who can competently conduct business between Japan and the United States.

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE PREDICTORS OF SUCCESS OF EXPATRIATE STUDENT INTERNS

by

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and

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"An Examination of the Predictors of Success of Expatriate Student Interns"

by

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a proposal for research that is currently in progress. The purpose of this research is to examine predictors of success of individuals who serve as business interns in a country foreign to them. Subjects are either in a bachelors or masters program in International Trade from the United States or Western Europe. The predictors to be considered are related to personal characteristics of the students such as language skills, values, personality, perceptions of the new environment as well as characteristics of the internship job. Dependent measures will be performance of the intern (ratings of self, supervising professor, and business supervisor), satisfaction of the intern with the experience, and intern commitment to a future international career. Methodological problems will also be presented.

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine variables that predict success for International Trade majors who serve an internship abroad. Am empirical examination of such an issue merits study because:

1) The literature on predictors of effective behavior in a business environment abroad is mostly anecdotal. In 1978, Newman, Bhatt, and Gutteridge labeled the area "a theoretical and empirical vacuum." At this point in time, there is mostly anecdotal evidence about what is being done to prepare individuals for overseas assignments as well as perceptions of organizations related to why individuals succeed or fail. However, individual characteristics, the job itself, and the environment as contributing to success or failure have not been examined empirically.

2) International Trade has become increasingly important for the United States because of the escalating trade deficit and increasing involvement of American businesses in other nations. Some statistics that illustrate this phenomenal growth are:

	1960	1980
-exports as a percentage of Gross National Product	4.8%	9.6%
	1957	1974
-foreign share of earnings in all industries	8.7%	26.9%

-the number of foreign subsidiaries doubled from 1950 to 1960 and doubled again from 1961 to 1975 (Kobrin, 1984).

3) Since international trade has become increasingly important to the United States' business health, the educational implications of preparing students to function in a changed global economy are important to examine. It may not be true that such students will work abroad since the number of expatriate Americans has declined in the last ten years (Kobrin, 1984). However, the demand on individuals in business to coordinate globally has increased and likely will continue to do so. We need as educators to understand what preparation and characteristics individuals need to succeed in coping with business environments that may be different from the native environment in multiple tangible and intangible ways.

The question becomes then how best to prepare students for such job demands. Interestingly, a survey of organizations involved extensively in international trade disclosed that education was rarely, if ever, mentioned as a means of acquiring international expertise (Kobrin, 1984). Actual experience abroad (living or extensive travel) was considered the most important learning tool. Education, however, has been considered a competitive tool that may compensate for the United States' narrowing technological advantage (Kobrin, 1984). This is only possible if we can understand how to use education to help students succeed. The internship in International Trade offers a unique opportunity; it builds on academic preparation for another culture and it adds a component of actual job experience that organizations value. The internship experience focuses on bridging the gap from theoretical knowledge to application by providing actual experience (Wolf, 1979). Such a combination of efforts should provide significant clues regarding what factors facilitate the acquisition of international expertise.

4) One particularly intriguing factor in the business literature regarding American expatriate managers is the fact that only 3% are female (Adler, 1984). However, female student representation in the International Trade program is nearly equivalent to males. This study can be used to examine male and female differences, if any, in predicting success cross-culturally.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The best source of information on current practices in preparing individuals for international work is the business literature. Most of the literature is based on descriptive/case studies of what one organization has done or surveys of organizations. Few organizations apparently will deny the extent of international differences regarding language, politics, religion, social customs and norms, although many argue that "business is business" and no special attention to such differences is necessary (Kobrin, 1984).

It is the philosophical approach of this study that this simply is not the case. The literature abounds with at least anecdotal evidence of the faux pas and errors of judgment that have been generated because of a lack of knowledge of the language, customs, and beliefs of other nationalities. It has also been suggested that some characteristics valued by American business may be harmful when demonstrated in other cultures. For example, aggressiveness may be perceived as rudeness and inappropriate behavior in cultures that value patience, courtesy, and the development of interpersonal relationships in business. The least significant result of the above may be a short-term loss of profit; what is most serious for American business is the continuing lack of adaptability, or even worse, an insensitivity regarding the need to adapt. Such an unbroken cycle does not bode well for increases in doing business abroad effectively.

One suggestion related to the cause of myopia of Americans in doing business abroad is that the United States was an isolationist for such a long historical period that it was never subjected to the necessity of coping with one's near yet different neighbors as in Western Europe (Graham and Herberger, 1983). Whatever the cause(s), there seems to be evidence that organizations in the United States perceive preparation for the experience abroad differently than other countries, and one of the consequences is a higher failure rate of American expatriates. This is generally measured by returning home before the assignment is completed because of job failure and/or individual or family dissatisfaction.

Tung (1982) surveyed businesses in the United States, Western Europe, and Japan. Some of the results were:

	% Who Reported Existence of Training as Preparation for Overseas Assignment	Estimated Failure Rate of Expatriates
United States	32%	69% of sample estimated 10-20%
Western Europe	69%	59% of sample estimated less than 5%
Japan	57%	76% of sample estimated less than 5%

It was concluded that use of rigorous training reduced incidents of inability to function. Incidentally, failure in the United States was repeatedly suggested to relate to problems with adaptation, especially regarding the family. This suggests inadequate preparation and faulty expectations regarding aspects of expatriate living that do not relate directly to the job.

The reasons for a lack of attention to selection and training may also relate to perceptions regarding the importance of cultural preparation. A recent survey of 1000 large United States' firms found the following (Baliga & Baker, 1985):

> *While 50% of firms believe foreign language skill is important, only 20% of the firms require such skill for overseas assignments.
>
> *25% of the firms offered pre-departure training in house which ranged from one to five days. Most training focused on company operations and very little was included on political, historical, economic, or cultural factors of the host country.

The previously cited survey by Kobrin (1984) found that while 10% of organizations felt international expertise was critical for an international assignment, 45% felt it was important, 39% felt "it was nice to have", but a minor factor, and 6% felt it was unimportant.

In conclusion, it seems that the emphasis on expatriate effectiveness and preparation is related mostly to the job itself and much less to language and cultural factors. There is little or no empirical research to suggest whether this is a viable approach. Certainly it appears that other countries are more concerned about the cultural elements in selection and preparation of the expatriate.

THEORETICAL MODEL

The prevailing theoretical model for this study is role theory. Bandura (1977) suggested that individuals learn through a combination of observation, practice, and reinforcement for appropriate behavior. One important source of difficulty in learning the role, besides lacking the opportunity to learn and practice as mentioned, is the experience of conflict (Brown, 1983). It is the premise of the study that the characteristics of the individual, the internship, and the environment may either hinder or help the learning of role in another culture. It is impossible, in this context, to explain all the hypotheses associated with variables listed for the study in Appendix A. However, a few examples will be discussed briefly.

Conflict is a particularly relevant issue in this study since it is likely the intern will experience conflict in two ways. First, the attempt to interface between two cultures may produce conflict. Role expectations of the self and others may clash because of differential cultural perceptions of appropriate behavior. Skills and personality traits that the intern possesses may ease the conflict, and thus increase the interface. For example, language skills and values could be particularly important. Without a language skill, one cannot permeate a culture. An individual is dependent upon others for information and is isolated from feedback, support, and communication with others in the environment (Kobrin, 1984). As language skill increases, it is hypothesized that the likelihood of successful interface will also increase.

Similar values of the intern in comparison to the host country may also facilitate adaptation. Even if values are not similar, it appears that high levels of self-esteem and flexibility may increase the likelihood of tolerance and understanding. One study suggests that personal values may be revised as a result of the international experience and may move closer to values associated with the host's country (Lee & Larwood, 1983). There is normative information available from an extensive study of national values with a standardized instrument that will aid significantly in the examination of this factor (Hofstede, 1984).

The second source of conflict relates to the internship as a first career position. The individual is experiencing a socialization process regarding the professional role. Factors that should lessen this conflict are those related to learning functional skills. For example, a challenging job and supervisory support should decrease the conflict and increase the learning (Wanous, 1980).

In summary, this study will examine the relationship between variables the literature suggests will be facilitative of adaptation to another culture and job success and satisfaction of the intern.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects will be undergraduate and graduate students who serve an internship abroad from International Trade programs both from Eastern Michigan University as well as European students who serve an internship in the United States. The universe of possible subjects is small and the statistical tests should have large N's (100 is a reasonable goal) in order to ensure the appropriate use of desirable statistical tests (e.g., MANOVA, factor analysis). Therefore, in order to increase the sample size, personal calls will be made to students to request their participation before mailing surveys. If the size of sample generated should be 50 or less the statistics must be limited to descriptive statistics such as chi squares and correlations.

Measurements The independent variables listed in Appendix A were generated by a search of the literature and in most cases, use standardized questionnaires with adequate levels of validity and reliability. Dependent variables (measures of performance and satisfaction) will be assessed by two to three items each regarding various dimensions, for example, performance ratings by the company, the internship professor who supervises, and the student will all be used to ensure adequate measurement.

IMPLICATIONS/CONCLUSIONS

The information generated from this study will have both educational and business implications. First, for education, there will be information available about what educational and internship experiences are most predictive of successful internship performance and intern satisfaction. This feedback may initiate curriculum revisions and an increase in the monitoring of internships to ensure that the student receives an adequate internship experience. The experience, since it is a first career job, may make a significant difference in launching future successful careers for students.

The business implications may also yield important information that should be disseminated not only in an academic publication mode, but also in publications that businesses use. This data may support (given support for hypotheses, of course) an empirical increase in expatriate effectiveness with demonstrated language skills and cultural preparation. This will contradict commonly held business beliefs that functional preparation for international work is the most salient factor in predicting success. The implication relates to increased levels of training for such positions.

In conclusion, it is believed that the research described should contribute to a knowledge base in both education and business as well as suggesting revisions to current practices.

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Predictors of Student Success on Internship	Measured by	Dependent Measures of Student Success on Internship	Measured by
Characteristics of Student			
1 -Demographics: sex, race, age, marital status, native country	1 -Student questionnaire	-Performance of intern (self, professors', and supervisor in organization rating)	-2 item Likert scale on questionnaires of quality and quantity of performance and same items to professor and supervisor
2 -Expertise with language of host country	2 -GPA in language courses		
3 -Functional knowledge of job	3 -Student questionnaire		
4 -Value system or needs (Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism, Masculinity)	4 -Value Survey Module (Hofstede)		
5 -Self-esteem	5 -Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg)		
6 -Flexibility/adaptability	6 -Intolerance of Ambiguity Scale (Budner)		
7 -Locus of control (internal/external)	7 -Internal/External Scale (Rotter)		
Characteristics of Internship			
1 -Challenge, feedback within job	1 -Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman)	-Satisfaction of intern with internship re job itself and supervisor	-Job Descriptive Inventory (Smith, Kendall & Hulin)
2 -Supervisory support	2 -Job Descriptive Inventory (Smith, Kendall, Hulin)		
3 -Functional experience developed	3 -Student questionnaire		
Student Perceptions of Environment of Internship			
1 -Previous experience with host country (e.g., traveling, living, friends)	1+2 -Student questionnaire (Likert scale on exposure)	-Commitment to future international career -Satisfaction of student with cultural experience	-Intentions for future as expressed on questionnaire
2 -Cultural knowledge (politics, economics, social, etc.)			
3 -Nature of environment (benign or threatening-isolation, danger, prejudice)	3 -Intolerance of Ambiguity Scale (Budner)		

A NEW PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM: THE WORLD COLLEGE AND INTERCOLLEGIATE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM

by

Gaston R. Des Harnais and Ray E. Schaub
Project Co-Directors

Eastern Michigan University

LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

SEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE

The Ann Arbor Inn
Ann Arbor, Michigan
April 7-9, 1988
Pre-Conference Workshops April 6, 1988

Jointly sponsored by

The World College
The College of Business
The Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies
and
The Division of Continuing Education

3/28/88

Eastern Michigan University

The World College and Intercollegiate
Internationalization of the Curriculum:
A Project Funded by Title VI,
Undergraduate International Studies
and Foreign Language Program and E.M.U.

Administrators and Faculty of Eastern Michigan University, in its five academic Colleges and its new facilitation center, the World College, have received funds to assist in internationalizing its curriculum for 3,400 undergraduate students yearly.

The purpose of this project is to coordinate the development and implementation of new international curricular elements in Basic Studies (3,100 students): in a new interdisciplinary degree, Language and Internatiolnal Affairs: in Interdisciplinary Technology and in Teacher Education and certification (300 students).

This coordination and incentive project has an 18 month timeline because an enormous amount of consensus has occurred over the past two years. The project, however, is needed to develop curriculum systematically with appropriate consultative and evaluative services, so that the changes are of high quality, operational, and permanently integrated into the curriculum. The project is developing:

-- major comparative modules for the U.S. Government course requirement for ten faculty and 2,500 students (Basic Studies).

-- a new international course requirement for Basic Studies: several versions including a course by Afro-American Studies and one by Women Studies (600 students).

-- four International Social Science courses and two Foreign Language courses plus two modules, designed for the new B.A. in Language and International Affairs.

-- three international/comparative modules for Interdisciplinary Technology and one course and two modules for Teacher Education and certification (300 students).

These activities are linked with faculty workshops and student awareness events.

The World College is fostering intercollegiate information flow, and is using its Seventh Annual Conference on Languages and Communication for World Business and the Professions to share these advances nationwide. It is expanding its International Cooperative Education Exchange Program to include interns from the Language and International Affairs degree.

THE THREE BASIC GOALS OF THE WORLD COLLEGE:

1) TO INCREASE EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENTS AND FACULTY ABROAD

2) TO DEVELOP CONTRACT-BASED INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMS WITH EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES, GOVERNMENTS AND CORPORATIONS BOTH IN THE U.S. AND ABROAD

3) TO PROVIDE ON-CAMPUS INTERNATIONAL LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENTS, AND ON-CAMPUS INTERNATIONAL PROFESSIONAL RESOURCES AND DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR FACULTY

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INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMS AND PROJECTS AT EMU

1) INTERDISCIPLINARY LANGUAGE AND BUSINESS STUDIES

   A) LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE PROGRAM
   B) LANGUAGE AND WORLD BUSINESS JOINT DEGREE PROGRAM (BBA/BA)

2) INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE PROGRAMS FOR PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

   A) INTERNATIONAL COOPERATIVE EDUCATION EXCHANGE PROGRAM
   B) EXCHANGE PROGRAM WITH THE STATE OF BADEN-WUERTTEMBERG IN WEST GERMANY

3) INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

4) USAID PROJECTS WITH YEMEN AND SWAZILAND

5) GROWING INTERNATIONAL STUDENT BODY AT EMU - OVER 1,100 STUDENTS FROM 72 FOREIGN COUNTRIES

6) INTERNATIONAL STUDIES PROGRAM

7) BILINGUAL VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

8) CHINA EXCHANGE PROGRAM

9) AREA STUDIES PROGRAM

10) CANADIAN STUDIES CENTER

11) PARTNERSHIPS IN EXPORT PROMOTION PROJECT (TITLE VI.B.)

12) INTERNATIONALLY FOCUSED JOURNALS

   STUDIES IN COMPARATIVE INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

   JOURNAL OF NARRATIVE TECHNIQUES

   SULFUR

13) CORPORATE EDUCATION CENTER: INTERNATIONAL CORPORATE EDUCATION COMPONENT

14) COLLEGE SERVICE CENTER FOR ARTS AND HUMANITIES: INTERNATIONAL AND CROSS-CULTURAL PROGRAMS

15) PROJECT TO INTERNATIONALIZE THE UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULUM (TITLE VI.A.)

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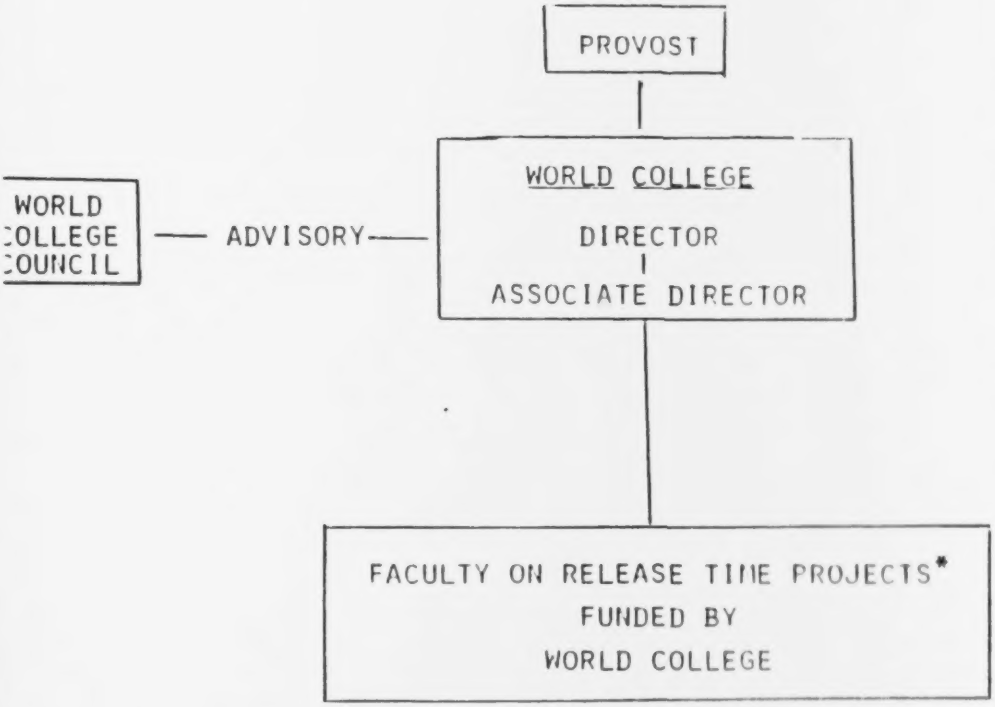
WORLD COLLEGE
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART


PROVOST
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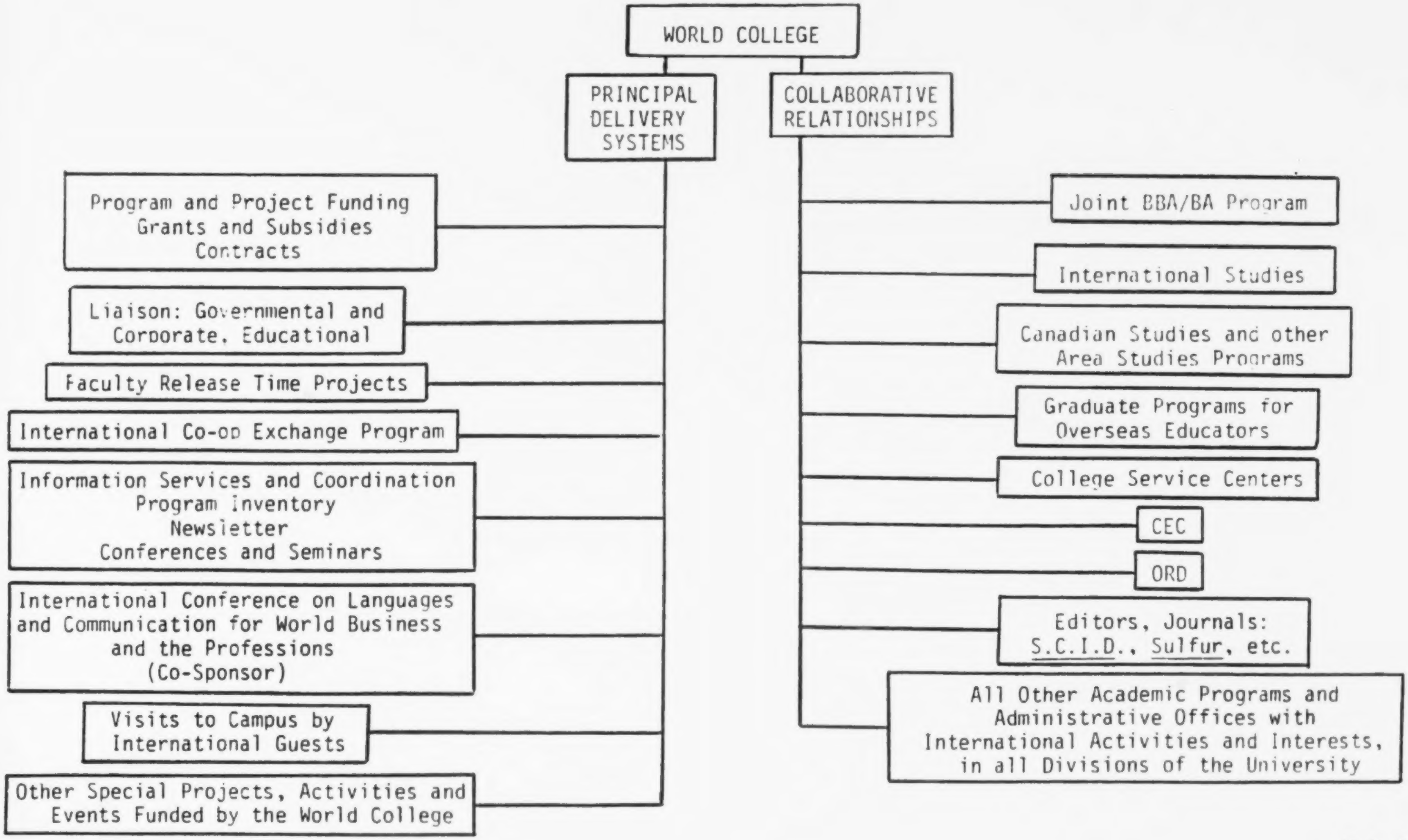
FACULTY ON RELEASE TIME PROJECTS*
FUNDED BY
WORLD COLLEGE

*The projects for 1987-88 are:
1) China Exchange Programs
2) Internationalization of the Undergraduate Curriculum

World College
Principal Delivery Systems
and
Collaborative Relationships


WORLD COLLEGE
PRINCIPAL DELIVERY SYSTEMS
COLLABORATIVE RELATIONSHIPS
Program and Project Funding Grants and Subsidies Contracts
Liaison: Governmental and Corporate, Educational
Faculty Release Time Projects
International Co-op Exchange Program
Information Services and Coordination Program Inventory Newsletter Conferences and Seminars
International Conference on Languages and Communication for World Business and the Professions (Co-Sponsor)
Visits to Campus by International Guests
Other Special Projects, Activities and Events Funded by the World College
Joint BBA/BA Program
International Studies
Canadian Studies and other Area Studies Programs
Graduate Programs for Overseas Educators
College Service Centers
CEC
ORD
Editors, Journals: S.C.I.D., Sulfur, etc.
All Other Academic Programs and Administrative Offices with International Activities and Interests, in all Divisions of the University

STATUS REPORT ON AN INTERDISCIPLINARY PROGRAM: THE JOINT DEGREE, B.B.A./B.A. IN LANGUAGE AND WORLD BUSINESS

by
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Management Department

Eastern Michigan University

LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

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STATUS REPORT ON AN INTERDISCIPLINARY PROGRAM: A JOINT DEGREE, THE BACHELOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION/BACHELOR OF ARTS IN LANGUAGE AND WORLD BUSINESS.

Project funded by Eastern Michigan University and U.S. Department of Education Undergraduate International Studies and Foreign Language Program (CFDA No. 84.016)

Administration and Faculty in Eastern Michigan University, notabley in the College of Arts and Sciences, Language and International Trade program, and the College of Business, were awarded funds (July, 1985 - October, 1987) to design and offer a joint degree in foreign language applications and international business practices.

This Joint Degree program was approved by the Regents of Eastern Michigan University on September 23, 1987 and is now operational.

Our objective has been to help reverse the decline of the United States as a force in a world-wide integrated market. The joint degree requires advanced language proficiency along with a solid foundation in the principles and practices of international business.

This new jointly accredited and awarded degree is called the Bachelor of Business Administration - Bachelor of Arts in Language and World Business. The project has involved suffusing 17 existing courses with international elements; planning and developing five new courses in world business and related areas; correlating both business and language studies with international advances in technology, business and manufacturing practices; and expanding the existing International Cooperative Student Exchange program.

Release time was used to facilitate the upgrading of existing business courses, the development of new international business courses, and the integration of both programs. Over a period of two years we designed the Joint Degree and completed university-wide approval between November, 1986, and September, 1987.

The entire program was piloted by Fall, 1987, with full implementation in Fall, 1988. All proposed elements, most of them piloted, have been integrated into the program. Suffusion of other courses beyond the core is continuing. The Joint Degree provides "global" training for careers in business management and communication, marketing coordination, transportation and logistics, financial and accounting expertise, and human resources and staff development.

Both Colleges are supplementing the Language and World Business components with a team-taught seminar and a set of cultrual jointly taught courses drawing on Political Science, History, Geography and Economics.

The concomitant expansion of the International Cooperative Education Exchange network to include the new joint majors will introduce well trained, language-proficient graduates into the world of International finance, production and marketing.

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"One Approach to Lowering the Trade Deficit: Status and Outlook of a Successful Language and International Trade Program"

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Presented by Dr. Lizabeth England

One Approach to Lowering the Trade Deficit: Status and Outlook of a Successful Language and International Trade Program

Length: 10 minutes

Audience: Language educators and business educators, not language specific

Content: In recent years the U.S. trade deficit has gone from an occasional minor item in the business section of the daily newspaper to page one headlines, acquiring even historical importance as comparisons are drawn between October 1987 and October 1929. For the past eight years, a university academic program designed to combine the study of business administration with concentrations in foreign language, history, geography, and political science has established itself as a model for preparing young people to help the country compete in a globally interdependent economy. This paper describes the background, development, growth, requirements, and outcomes of an undergraduate and an M.A. program in language and international trade offering specialization in ESL, French, German, Japanese, and Spanish.

Conceived during a period of declining enrollments in foreign language classes, this program attracted interest from its inception and soon grew to be the main foreign language offering at a mid-sized regional state university. Combining a principal concentration in business administration with language and area studies, the program also requires a co-operative education internship and has the possibility of placement abroad for qualified candidates. Most graduates seem to find employment, many directly in the specialty for which the program prepared them. While the trade deficit will likely be a passing problem, training people with business skills and a world perspective is an on-going contribution to the national welfare.

WHAT THE GRADUATES ARE SAYING: A REPORT ON A SURVEY OF LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE GRADUATES AT EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

by

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What the Graduates Are Saying: A Report on a Survey of Language and International Trade Graduates at Eastern Michigan University

A Paper Delivered at the Eastern Michigan University Conference on
Languages and Communication for Businesses and the Professions
Ann Arbor, Michigan, April 1988

by J. Sanford Dugan, Ph.D.

Prelude

"Excellent language program including culture and geography. However, language as a specialty is not enough. It must supplement another field of study."

"A good language program emphasizing quality and competence in perfecting any one language at E.M.U."

"I would . . . like to see more international-business-related courses to learn such items as letter of credit, shipper's letters, . . . and a broader background in international business procedures, e.g., international shipments."

"From most of the comments I have gotten from businessmen in international and domestic companies there are not many entry-level jobs in international marketing. I was told I would have to develop my 'business' skills before I could get an opportunity to use my language skills."

Those quotes, some positive, some not so positive, are taken from responses to a recent survey. They represent salient aspects of what alumni are facing in pursuing a career in international trade.

Introduction

The Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies at Eastern Michigan University, benefitting from the close cooperation of a number of departments within the University, established in 1978 undergraduate and graduate programs in foreign language and international trade. The graduate program, requiring thirty semester hours and leading to the M.A., began awarding degrees in 1980. The undergraduate program, consisting of 60 semester hours and leading to the B.A., began awarding degrees in 1979. In the fall of 1983, Professor Ray Schaub addressed an alumni survey to the 100 graduates and reported on responses from 40%. By June 1986, the graduate program had produced a total of 155 M.A.'s, and the undergraduate program, 101 B.A.'s. In January of 1987, under the direction of Professor Jean S. Bidwell, the Department launched a survey of graduates of all of its programs, including the B.A. and M.A. in LIT. It is the results from the latter groups that form the basis of the present report.

The survey questionnaire, designed to preserve individual anonymity, consisted of 30 questions addressed to all alumni/ae and an additional 10 questions addressed specifically to LIT graduates. Of the first 30 questions, 10 (numbers 2-11) attempt to describe the educational activities that the respondent engaged in while at EMU and thereafter. Two questions (12, 13) ask opinions on internships. Two more questions (14, 15) seek information on EMU programs as related to the respondents' motivational objectives and on the perceived importance of those objectives. Twelve questions (16-27) relate to the employment situation of the respondents and the use of language on the job. Three summary questions (28-30) ask for an overall rating of the EMU program and specific answers on strengths and weaknesses. The ten questions addressed to LIT alumni/ae look for information about the size and nature of business of the respondent's employer and the extent to which that employer and the individual respondent are involved in international business.

Of the approximately 155 M.A. recipients, 41 responded; of the approximately 101 B.A. recipients, 27 responded. That gives response rates of 26% and 27%, respectively.

The first six questions deal with the students' background and their training at EMU. In general, for both the B.A. and M.A. groups, the respondents are U.S. citizens graduating since 1980. The distribution by language favors Spanish and French, but German is well represented; a small number of non-U.S. students, mostly in ESL and mostly from the Far East, are in the M.A. group.

For both groups, 28% are enrolled in or have completed a further degree beyond the one received at EMU. Another 44% state that they plan to continue their education. This means that over two thirds of those responding placed value on further education. Now, the next item has to do just with that two-thirds group. A little over half of them say that their field of further study is business related. Respondents state a number of reasons for continuing study, including personal interest, advancement in the workplace, pursuing another field, etc. Some cite more than one. If we add all of the mentions and classify them into two categories, A. practical and B. personal interest, we find that 46% fall in A and 53% in B; 1% is attributable to "Other". This apparent equality between motivation for practical reasons and motivation for reasons of personal interest is intriguing.

Almost all (97%) of the respondents in both B.A. and M.A. groups completed an internship. When asked to rate the service EMU provided in obtaining the internship, 24% chose "Excellent" or "Good" as an answer, while 46% chose "Poor". The assignments themselves, however, seemed to be very successful. 65% rated the internship experience as "Excellent" or "Good", while only 3% called it "Poor" or a "Waste of Time".

The EMU programs are perceived to be helpful in varying degrees depending upon the objectives sought. Respondents said "yes" 80% or more of the time when asked whether EMU helped to achieve the following objectives: 1) Increase knowledge and understanding; 2) Obtain a degree or certification; 3) Obtain skills for a career. The proportions were lower, near 60%, for the following: 4) Apply theoretical knowledge; 5) Discover career interests. The percentages were around 45% for these: 6) Identify organizations and sources of information; 7) Develop long-term career goals; 8) Increase chances for promotion. The least frequently identified goal, with a 34% positive response, was 8) Prepare for a career change.

Employment

Two questions relate the LIT programs to finding a job. Question 21, "Was knowing a foreign language a significant factor in your finding employment?" 44% replied "Yes". Question 10 of the special section asks, "To what extent were your business studies a factor in your finding a job?" 70% indicate that they were from "Slightly" to "Very" important, with 32% falling in the latter category. This reinforces what has often been said, namely that business skills will secure the job, while foreign language skills are considered an important additional asset.

The employment situation for those who answered the survey is very encouraging. 85% are in full-time jobs, another 8% have part-time work (the 6% unemployed are all in the M.A. group). 65% of respondents have been in their present job two years or less. The area in which employment was first found was two thirds of the time in business, with government being the next highest first-time employer at 13%. From the description of current employment duties, there appears to be a variety of levels. 46% describe their job in terms that can be interpreted as entry-level; 33% used terms that clearly indicate administrative functions; the rest are classified as "Other", or they did not respond. Salaries seem respectable. 34% earn under $20,000; 37% earn $20-29,000; 15%, $30-39,000, and 6%

earn $40,000 or more.

Several other questions reveal the relationship between EMU preparation and job related activities. Question 22: "To what extent is your current (or most recent) job related to your major field of study? 78% replied "directly related" or "Somewhat related". Question 24, "To what extent do the functions of your present (or most recent) job involve using your foreign language?" 26% say 1 or more hours a day; 41% say "None". Question 1 of the special questionnaire on p. 4 asks, "To what extent is your employer involved in international concerns?" 61% say their employer has at least some involvement, with almost half of those saying the involvement is very high. In Question 8 of that page, alumni/ae are asked "To what extent are the duties of your job related to international concerns?" 47% indicate some involvement; again, half of those say their involvement is over 75% with international concerns.

Overall evaluation

Question 28 asks, "How would you rate your overall language and culture preparation at EMU for your current (most recent) job?" 51% replied "Excellent" or "Good"; 10% said "Inadequate"

Several questions in the special section addressed to LIT graduates attempt to characterize the employers that graduates are working for. From the responses gathered, it appears that there is a roughly even distribution of employment among small-, medium-, and large-size businesses, both in terms of sales and number of employees. About an equal number of graduates are working for firms that do have overseas subsidiaries as are working for firms that do not. The primary actitvity of the firms is roughly evenly distributed among non-automobile manufacturing, automobile manufacturing, retail/wholesale, finance/banking, transportation, and other. Among the international activities of the employers, import/export seems to have about equal importance with "other", while finance takes a significant third place. Those employers that are involved in international activities seem to take a broad apporach. A few are limited mainly to one country, while the great majority have a worldwide outlook on their international dealings.

Comparison With Schaub Survey

The Schaub report of 1983 gave some indication of the experience of graduates from the earliest years of the program. While that questionnaire is different, a comparison with the present survey is possible and reveals some similarities and some differences.

Schaub 1983	Bidwell 1987
1) 2/3 say their work has international aspects.	1) 78% say present or most recent job is related to major field of study.
2) 14 diferent job titles listed. A plurality, but not a majority, are in marketing.	2) 25% say "business manager"; 18% say "clerk/service agent" or "sales rep."; 10% say "teacher"; 9% say "government employee"; 4% say "accountant"; and 26% list other jobs. A total of 69% claim employment in "business or industry".
3) Over 70% indicate they use a foreign language in some aspect of their job.	3) 56% say they use some foreign language in their job.
4) Typical alumnus/a works in a firm that: a. operates at least one unit abroad. b. has over 1,000 employees outside the U.S. c. deals mainly in export/import.	4) Profile of alumni by employer: a. 40% work in firms with o/seas office(s). b. 24% work in firm with > 1,000 employees o/seas. c. 24% work in impt./expt. firms
5) 95% of respondents are employed.	5) 90% of respondents are employed
6) Salaries: upper teens, low 20's	6) Median salary; low 20's
7) Judgment of program: equal importance given to f.l. training, business studies, practical eperience. Suggestions on improving the program: consistent response was to increase all three aspects of the program.	7) Strengths — % of mentions Language courses 28% Business courses 18% Professors 16% Curriculum 8% Weaknesses Curriculum 28% Business courses 18% Marketability 10% Job placement 8% Counseling 8%

Conclusion

Once again, it must be kept in mind that the survey sample was not randomized and the response rate was 26%.

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With those cautions in mind, a few conclusions are warrented. Those who did respond seemed to be doing well, had largely positive attitudes toward the E.M.U. programs, wanted to continue their education, and expressed as a rationale for education personal interest and improvement as often as making more money or getting a promotion.

III. INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND TEACHING

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TOWARDS A MORE REALISTIC BUSINESS CURRICULUM

by

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TOWARD A MORE REALISTIC BUSINESS CURRICULUM

by

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University of La Verne

The need to internationalize the business curriculum for our colleges and universities is well documented. The crucial issue is how to design or modify the curriculum to make it relevant, comprehensive, practical, and imaginative in order to meet the challenges of world business in the 1990's. Among other things, such a program must accomplish the following goals :

1. Provide familiarity with the existing body of knowledge of international business and related disciplines. To this end, greater emphasis must be placed on international environmental forces, especially cross-cultural business practices.
2. Bridge the gaps between theory and practice.
3. Develop in the student special sensitivity, flexibility, desirable attitudes, and tolerance.

In my judgment, the single most important means of achieving the abovementioned goals is to offer courses more creatively. New courses might be needed to supplement existing curricula. A recently created course at the University of La Verne entitled "Analysis of Pacific Rim Business" will be used as the illustration for this presentation. This course examines and analyzes the opportunities, issues, problems, and challenges of doing business with countries of the Pacific Rim region, exploring the significance and implications of such interaction for the United States.

There are two major components to the course : classroom learning and field study. From October to December 1987, we met as a class. Students were given voluminous reading assignments relating to the economies of the whole region as well as of individual countries. Topics covered included trade and investment opportunities, as well as business etiquette, ethics, and practices. Some of the materials provided overviews and summaries in different areas of business, while others dealt with specific issues or problems in greater depth. There were readings concerning the individual countries we were going to visit. The class was conducted as a seminar, with the focus on integrating theory and practice.

At the beginning of the seminar, each student was required to choose a topic for the research paper, the emphasis of which was to be application rather than theory. Students were encouraged to rely heavily on primary data such as personal interviews and company documents. Many of the students contacted U.S. owned multinational companies with subsidiaries in the Far East, as well as U.S. affiliates of Far Eastern companies. Every company was very cooperative in providing valuable information and assistance. The major college and university libraries in southern California also provided us with timely publications and documents. Many trade missions and professional organizations were of great help to our students. From a myriad of sources, students were able to gather the bulk of their research materials in the United States. Any missing information, clarification, or verification was to be done in situ during the field trip to the Orient.

In January 1988, we traveled to Japan, Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and the People's Republic of China for our field study. Selected companies were prearranged for the group to visit. The selection of companies and advanced planning were critical for the success of our study tour. Some of the criteria used in the selection of companies were :

1. Academic and practical educational value, with strong implications for American businesses.
2. Interesting and unique characteristics such as sophistication, progressiveness, dynamism, and vitality.
3. Diversity and the ability to broaden student perspectives.

Based on the above criteria, we selected two trading companies, one department store, and representative firms from the steel, automobile, electronics, plastics, and high-tech industries.

Trading companies were selected not only because they are lucratic businesses, but more importantly, because they are the main instruments for promoting a country's trade with the rest of the world. In view of our tremendous trade deficits in recent years, we definitely need help in finding ways to promote trade with other countries. Although in 1982 the United States Congress passed the Export Trading Company Act in an effort to catch up with Japan and other industrial countries in promoting trade, no institution comparable to these trading companies exists as yet in our country. We elected to visit two of the oldest, largest most sophisticated and successful trading companies in Japan : Mitsubishi and Mitsui. Mitsubishi Trading Company, a subsidiary of Mitsubishi Corporation, was started as the Tsukumo Shokai Shipping Company in 1870 and has undergone many transformations since that time. In 1954, all the trading companies were merged under the umbrella of the Mitsubishi Corporation. Today, there are a number of companies bearing the name Mitsubishi in their respective company names, such as Mitsubishi Heavy Industries, Ltd., Mitsubishi Electric Corporation, and Mitsubishi Iron and Steel. However, each Mitsubishi company is a fully independent entity with its own management and shareholders. Business decisions are made separately by each company. As one of Japan's foremost general trading companies, Mitsubishi Corporation provides a broad array of fully integrated services designed to facilitate trade and enhance worldwide commercial development. Students were able to observe the workings of this huge trading company, which has more than 220 offices in over 80 countries, and which is constantly and aggressively expanding into new areas, such as information processing, telecommunications, biotechnology, electronics, and space technology.

The second trading company we visited, Mitsui & Co., ltd., ranks among the world's top trading companies, with total trading transactions exceeding U.S. $70 billion in recent years. Mitsui Company was established in 1876, with the original objective of promoting Japan's external trade, particularly the export of rice and coal. By the turn of the century, the Company and related Mitsui enterprises had developed into a zaibatsu, a large industrial and financial combine centered around a holding company. In 1959, Mitsui merged with Daiichi Bussan to form Mitsui & Co., Ltd. as it exists today. In line with Japan's postwar economic growth, Mitsui's operations have steadily expanded, leading to the establishment of an extensive global marketing and telecommunications network.

Quite different from the trading companies, but certainly equally impressive, was the Seibu Department Store, a store designed to appeal to the rich and sophisticated customer. It belongs to the Seibu Saison Group, which operates in ten areas of business : department stores, specialty stores, superstores, convenience stores, real estate and tourism, manufacturing, credit and finance, restaurants and food services, air transportation and distribution, and insurance. These stores are not designed just to be mere retail outlets, but rather to be area lifestyle information centers and focuses of urban revitalization, renovation movements, and entertainment complexes, all of which make large contributions towards regional prosperity. The students -- and their professor -- were greatly impressed with the vastness, luxury, and complexity of the Seibu operation.

Our next stop was Nippon Kokan (NKK), the oldest private steelmaking company in Japan. NKK has played a pivotal role in Japan's industrial development and prosperity. Nippon Kokan is a unique, integrated heavy industrial enterprise which incorporates steelmaking, shipbuilding, construction, and engineering functions under one corporate body. NKK's Steel Division has two large, ultramodern, sophisticated steelworks, the combined production capacity of which (22 million metric tons) makes the company the second largest steelmaker in Japan. We visited Keihin Steel plant in the Tokyo/Yokohama industrial area, and we marveled at the streamlined facility layout, as well as the emphasis placed on comprehensive energy conservation and the unrivaled, highly advanced environmental control system.

In addition to the technological advances it affords, NKK is also a pioneer in the area of employee welfare. We observed how various programs have been implemented to help employees maintain and improve not only their health and living conditions, but also safety at their workplace. Well-equipped general hospitals, rest houses at resort areas, dormitories for single workers, apartment houses for married workers, sports and recreation centers and other facilities are provided for their employees. The company also has a system which offers financial and other benefits for those employees who plan to own their own homes.

All of us were reasonably familiar with Japanese companies prior to our trip, and our visit to Japan reinforced our positive pre-conceptions about Japanese business acumen. However, our visit to Korea provided some pleasant surprises vis-a-vis the rapid advancement of Korean business. Two of the most important of these businesses are Daewoo Automotive and Samsung Electronics.

Daewoo Motor Co., Ltd.'s roots go back to 1972, with the establishment of General Motors Korea, a joint venture between Shinjin Motor Company and General Motors. Daewoo Motor rapidly became a leading member of the Daewoo Group and an important national and international name in the automotive industry. In July 1984, Daewoo Motor reached an agreement with General Motors to develop a world-class subcompact car for the U.S. and other world markets. By 1987, the LeMans/Racer was being exported to the Middle East, Africa and South America, as well as to the North American market. In addition to its remarkable international expansion, Daewoo also maintains a highly efficient network of sales and after-sales service offices throughout Korea. According to the company's executives, this network has been largely responsible for Daewoo's reputation as a quality manufacturer and a reliable dealer and servicer in the local market. Throughout our tour of Daewoo, we were impressed by the company's emphasis on quality and reliability.

Another relatively new company, Samsung Electronics, was a highlight of our Korean visit. Established in 1969, Samsung Electronics boasts a massive manufacturing complex, with automated lines for making parts and assembling finished goods. Samsung manufactures a wide variety of products, from home appliances to media items. The company was the first to develop the 4 mm camcorder encompassing both T.V. and camera, as well as the digital tape recorder. Samsung has now become a new rising force in the world's high technology business, and is aggressively pursuing international markets with great success. It was a revelation for the La Verne students to observe first-hand the workings of a company whose name was already quite familiar to most of them.

From Korea, we proceeded to tour another "tiger" in the Pacific Rim, Taiwan. We were anxious to observe some representative companies that helped to perform economic miracles in this newly-industrialized country. We selected China General Plastics because it is one of the fastest-growing companies in Taiwan, with a very strong international orientation. China General Plastics Corporation was established in 1964 for the purpose of producing PVC resin and fabricated products. In 1968, Gulf Oil Corporation became a major shareholder of the company, changing its name to China Gulf Plastics Corporation. But in 1982, Gulf decided to divest its overseas chemical holdings, and consequently the company once again became China General Plastics (CGPC). CGPC is a leading manufacturer of plastic products in the Republic of China. It has also formed joint-venture operations with many developed countries, including the United States, as well as engaging in many successful turnkey projects in Asia. As a result, the CGPC Group is emerging as the most internationally oriented manufacturing group in the Far East.

The science-based Industrial Park (SIP) in Hsinchu, Taiwan, is an amazing science city with enterprises involving high-tech industrial investment projects. SIP is a unique entity because it is made up of a number of high-tech companies within the same complex, all of which are encouraged to cooperate in many vital areas, including research and development. Unlike industrial parks in the United States, SIP mobilizes the resources of many academic institutions. In fact, two science and engineering universities and one research institute are located within the park. The Taiwanese government has played a large part in creating and supporting this community in which people both work and live. Many investment incentives are given to both domestic and foreign investors, including a five-year income tax holiday, deferrable for up to four years to allow for a higher return on capital intensive projects with long lead time, exemption from business tax of export sales, and other incentives to encourage research and development, pollution control, and energy conservation. By visiting SIP, students could easily observe and internalize a familiar textbook adage, namely, that we in the United States need to learn to work together rather than against each other if we are going to compete effectively in the world markets.

This field experience has clarified and supplemented many of our readings. Further, it has awakened, excited, and motivated many of the participants, providing the stimulus for quite a number of students to do something significant professionally and personally. Upon our return to the United States at the end of January, students were given a couple of weeks to complete their research projects. The topics ranged from the U.S. competitive position in the Far East to trading companies, the quality circle, worker motivations, and comparative compensation systems. I was very pleased with the caliber of the students' reports, especially the new insights and understanding that they gained from the field experience. The clarification and correlations between theory and practice came across very clearly in their reports.

In addition to visiting business establishments, we experienced very diverse sights and sounds of each country on our itinerary. Cultural, educational, and religious institutions and monuments were included in our sightseeing activities. We mingled with people from all walks of life as well. We were invited by families into their homes. All these experiences helped us to understand others better and to learn to deal with our global neighbors from new perspectives.

I am convinced that this type of learning is most realistic, timely, and beneficial for the students, helping them to compete more effectively in the dynamic business world of the future. I plan to continue to offer courses that involve both classroom learning and field experience. Since the Pacific Rim region is such a growing and prosperous area, I plan to concentrate on different parts of this exciting region. In the near future, I hope to organize separate study tours to Southeast Asia, Australia and New Zealand, and the west coast of Latin America, thus integrating the empirical with the theoretical knowledge in a way that is meaningful to the student participants as well as consonant with our institutional goal of a truly internationalized business curriculum.

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PROBLEMS IN DEFINING THE DIRECTION AND CONTENT OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

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PROBLEMS IN DEFINING THE DIRECTION AND CONTENT OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

BY

NICHOLAS J. BELTSOS

CONFERENCE ON INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION TOWARDS THE 21ST CENTURY

SPONSORED

BY

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Thank you Dr. Boyd for your help and your kind words. I am extremely honored and deeply gratified for being a participant in such a fine assembly of administrative and academic talent from around the world.

I would like to present my views on international education in five distinct parts. In Part I, I will state briefly the nature of international education as an extension of "domestic" education suitably modified to account for the emerging environment of world interdependence. I will, swiftly, proceed to Part II, where I will discuss the problems in defining the content and direction of international education in terms of (A) the prevailing public and academic debates on the issue, (B) the major characteristics of the debates, and (C) the relationship education to training. In Part III, I will attempt (A) to present a broad picture of the functions of international education in the 21st Century and (B) identify some of the factors that are most likely to affect its effectiveness and efficiency. In Part IV, I will call the attention of this conference on certain, select, empirical, aspects of international education by reference to its temporal, spatial and current state dimensions. Lastly, in Part V, I will talk about programs of implementation (A) worldwide, and (B) at Eastern Michigan University. Finally, I will present a brief summary of my paper, and will try to draw appropriate conclusions.

I. THE NATURE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Clearness of ideas is essential to correct thinking. The greatest obstacle to the pursuit of truth lies in the vagueness and confusedness of ideas. In this part I will present a brief account of international education in terms of its comprehension and extension.

A. THE NEED FOR A CLEAR DEFINITION

A review of the professional literature on the subject, and the very theme of this conference, augers well for the need for defining international education and the need for identifying the problems related to it, as we move closer to the environment of the 21st Century. We frequently hear calls of the "Let us Internationalize our Marketing Students, " type from all directions of the educational spectrum. Such calls reflect problems related to definitional precision, failure to distiguish between gaols and objectives, and failure to relate both to the manner in which environmental changes influence their content and their achievement.

B. ACCEPTED DEFINITION

Let me begin with the accepted definition of what the essence of education is, the essence of all education . The essence of education is to prepare informed, enlightened, and responsible citizens--and leaders-- capable of (1) generating , out of an endless array of facts(data),information , which is syntactically sound, semantically intelligible, and pragmatically useful.., (2) evaluating the consequences of decisions taken on the bases of the so-generated information, and (3) using the information in making decisions and communicating these decisions to others. I can summarize the position which these three in a nutshell as follows: Education is knowing what you want, where you find what you want, and knowing what you do with it after you get it. And one scintilla of truth worth remembering: education cannot make us all leaders-- but it can teach us which leader to follow!

C. THE ESSENCE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

It appears to me that informed, enlightened, and responsible citizenship —and leadership— capable of "developing all the potentialities of the self," as Professor Reinsmith states (80:253), in a worldwide perspective is the true essence of international education. Success is not the essence of international education. Success is one of its outcomes. "Education," argues Professor Reinsmith, including international education, "deals with *being*, not merely with knowing or doing, and still less with getting or attaining. And has little to do with success. In fact its gravest crisis may come when it is most successful and turns to producing graduates."(80:254). Reinsmith's quotation from Metron(*Learning to Live*. p.11) is quite revealing: "If you are too obsessed with success, you will forget to live. If you have learned only how to be a success, your life has probably been wasted. If a university concentrates on producing successful people, it is inevitably failing in its obligation to society and to the student themselves."

While the true nature of education is not significantly altered by making its scope and methods coextensive with international life and challenges, its content, function, and direction are inexorably affected by changes in, and demands by, the environment as the American experience indicates(4,8,9). All of us in the educational enterprise have a vested interest in the identification of problems that relate to, and are created by, any attempt to define the nature, content and direction of international education in the 21st Century. In Part II, below, I am going to (A) look at the several positions which have emerged from the academic and public debate on international education, (B) examine their major characteristics, and (C) identify some of the problems created when the relationship between education and training is ignored.

II. PROBLEMS IN DEFINING INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN PERSPECTIVE

In this part I am creating the conditions or prerequisites for discussing intelligently the functions and limitations of international education in the 21st Century. I will examine in some detail the types of academic and public debates on the development of international education, their key, permanent, so to speak, features, and the problems arising out of the relative position of international education and training in the coming 21st Century.

A. ACADEMIC AND PUBLIC DEBATES ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

I will start first with the presentation of academic and public debates on international education with an important reminder. For any of the schools presented below, no person with a reservoir of knowledge is considered educated until he/she learns when to turn the spigot on and off with skill and wisdom. This should hold true for each of the following positions: (1) the idealist; (2) the Geopolitical Realist; (3) the Transnationalist-Free Trade Internationalist; (4) the Transnationalist--Functionalist Internationalist; and (5) the Radical (left, right) Internationalist. Although Kneip in his "Defining a Global Education by Its Content," (48) and Reginald Smart in his "The Goals and Definition of International Education: An Agenda for Discussion," (85) are superb discussions of the various currents of thought on the subject, I have found Steven L. Lamy's "Defining Global Education," (51) more useful for the purpose at hand.

1. THE IDEALIST POSITION

The idealist position on the nature and content of international education is based on rather inocuous assumptions. The idealist sees a world fundamentally good. All that it is needed is to enhance existing programs and create new ones that promote cultural understanding along with a renewal of absolescent social institutions. Accordingly, the nature of international education, and its direction, is such that it ipso facto rejects military power and strength as frames of reference in defining the goals of international education as being inconsistent with the Idealist's Polyanna attitude. A rather dominant perspective, since the end of World War I, the Idealist emphasized world peace and prosperity with resources diverted from military expenditures to economic, cultural and technological development. Papers presented in the 1983 special issue of Educational Research Quarterly, and edited by Steve L. Lamy as "Global Education: Symposium," (52) reflect accurately this view of the nature of international education. The Idealist position is also reflected in reported experimentation such as C. Waterlaw's report on "Classroom Education for Peace: Solutions to Global Problems " (97), in position papers such as the Position Paper on International Education by the State School Officers Council (89), : the Governors' urging of colleges to expand programs in international studies (42), and in the institutional work by J. M. Beker, "Goals for Global Education," (6) and Y. Okohara's "International Reports: Japan," (69). Thus, from the Idealist point of view the nature and function of international education in the 21st Century is to prepare young men and women for service to humanity with programs that promote cultural understanding and good will among nations of the world. This overall evaluation of the nature and function of international education is epitomized in Pelicano's (75) "A Macroperspective for Citizenship Education," and in Misches' (61) "Important Function of International Education for Promoting Peace in the Age of Global Transformation."

2. THE GEOPOLITICAL REALIST POSITION

It is very hard to separate geoeconomics from geopolitics and identify their respective adherents. The Geopolitical position looks at the world with less confidence in its purity and more respect for geoeconomic and geopolitical interests. Accordingly, the Geopolitical Realist views the nature of international education in relation to activist, interventionist policies which are based on appreciation and respect for balanced power. It is a view of international education with Realpolitik orientation. It is a kind of educational philosophy which grew during the interwar period, and dominated most of the post World War II international educational activity. This educational philosophy has been significantly affected, in content and direction, by the need to balance military (e.g., NATO) and economic (e.g., EEC) power worldwide. Typical manifestations of this attitude have tended to emphasize "global thinking, but local action " (2), "National Identity in a World Community " (11), and a kind of international understanding as envisaged by the Council of Europe that takes into consideration the fact that the world is still fragmented politically and economically (91). The need for an appreciation of, and respect for, power—central to the Geopolitical Realist Position—is reflected in R. A. McCaughey's demand that international studies become an integral part of international education (56), and in T. Wagner's call for "Education for Responsibility in a Nuclear Age " (96), a type of education which Martha Boaz makes it absolutely imperative (9).

3. THE TRANSNATIONALIST VIEW--THE FREE ENTERPRISE INTERNATIONALIST

The transnationalist view of the world conists of two kinds of educational philosophy: The Free Enterprise Internationalist and the Functionalist Internationalist. Both kinds have emerged as a reaction to the following developments: (a) the proliferation of new state (e.g., decolonization) and non-state actors in the international system; (b) the diffusion of political, economic and military resources and power in the international system; (c) the increased complexity of problems and policy issue facing the global community; and (d) the penetration of traditional boundaries of sovereignty due to the increase of interdependence between and among state and non-state actors in the international arena (51:14).

The Free Enterprise Internationalist view of international education is that global cooperation is important and is the sine qua non for increased and sustained welfare,worldwide. The emphasis, by-and-large, is on the significance of free trade in the product and the factor markets around the world, manifested by the unobstructed movement of goods and services as well as people, capital (technology), and raw materials. Central to the transnationalist view of the Free Trade kind is the multinational corporation. The multinational corporation, so far, appears to be the most ingenious device for diffusing knowledge and wealth in the most efficient manner around the world. The business and economics literature, as well as the literature of other fields, is replete with implications for the educational needs required by the spawning gigantic transnational enterprises. Professor Kniep's "Defining Global Education by Its Content" (42) and Miron Magnet's lamentation on the busting of the stock market on the "Black Monday" (of October, 1987) that uncovered its "spawned class of baby managers who are sometimes shameless in their business practices and their self-cherished materialsim," are typically reflections on the educational implications of the growing role of the transnational enterprise in the 21st Century. It is in this sense that A. B. Anthony (4) makes "global awareness" through multinational corporations an integral part of international education and forces the American states to back international education as a means to increase competitiveness in the world market (43).

4. THE TRANSNATIONALIST VIEW--THE FUNCTIONALIST INTERNATIONALIST

The Functionalist Internationalist position like the Free Enterprise Internationalist Position is more or less pragmatic in its outlook. It looks at the future from the position that global cooperation is a desirable state of affairs because of increasing interdependence, which tends to bring about the tendency towards benefits for all, and an increased role of non-private organizations and institutions of government in defining the nature, content, and direction of international education. Accordingly, the Functionalist Internationalist stresses mutual understanding and cooperation between cultures (29). In the Functionalist Internationalist millieu, the United States is one of the actors in the world community, not the most powerful one. Consequently, in the United States, global education must emphasize the importance of skills and competencies that will prepare students for articulation of world problems and the resolution of conflicts (51:15). To this effect, R. J. Gorter argues international collaboration in curriculum development is becoming an absolute necessity as we move closer towards the 21st Century (35). It seems that a "people to people" approach is widely accepted not only in the developed but inthe developing countries as well (79). One can see this in the increasing demand for cooperation in particular fields such as in the field of nursing education as reported by V. Masson (54).

5. THE RADICAL (LEFT, RIGHT) INTERNATIONALIST POSITION

The echo of Karl Marx's and his ideological descendents, the Radical Perspective (left, right) on international education has been without veridical success in challenging the idea that every nation-state benefits from global interdependence and cooperation. Consequently, international education must aim at the elimination of economic and political differentials that exist between and within nation-states. It is an ad hominem approach, an approach that appeals to a person's prejudices rather than his intellect. In the United States, as well as in Western Europe and Japan, this view of the nature and role of international education finds few adherents and little support. L. B. Iglitzin writing on the George Orwell's 1984, reminds us of the dangers and challenges of the everpresent "big brother" mentality which can easily creep into the educational process (40). Others present the radical notion that international education is (or should be) a sort of "cultural imperialism " (58).

Whether the International Council for the Future of Universities set up specifically to shield education from the left has succeeded is open to question. It is clear that as we approach the doorsteps of the 21st Century, the Marxist-Socialist thought on education seems to reflect a different trend in the socialist counties around the world. Who knows? Maybe G. M. Scully's observation that the International Council for the Future of the Universities which was set up to shield education from the left, should now fear the right, is correct. For example, N. Tchakarov, of Bulgaria ,calls for "Education for Peace and International Understanding in the People's Republic of Bulgaria," (90) and A. Nastase, of Romania, is cognizant of the spreading "culture for peace" and calls for education that makes this culture an integral part of planning for international education in Romania (66).

B. THE MAJOR CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PUBLIC AND ACADEMIC DEBATE ON INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

A careful examination of the literature covering international education, aside from the ever-present "tool-box" mentality, is that the debate reveals two fundamental characteristics worth noting for the purpose of this conference: (1) widespread desirability and (2) widespread lack of clear definition. Let us look at these two features briefly.

1. WIDESPREAD DESIRABILITY OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

The first key characteristic of the debate on international education is a goal that seems to attract the interest of not only the international educational community but also most of society's institutions worldwide. Its desirability for promoting and securing peace, progress, and economic growth, among other things, seems to be widespread, and firmly rooted everywhere in the world. For the Catholic schools and colleges "the Peace Pastoral" (92) is a document which promises work for peace worldwide. International competence, as I will define it later in Part III, is a "basic for our time" says F. S. Paulson (74). And the same conclusion is reached by the Symposium on International Education by the National Council of Social Studies (77). This is true whether one looks to Canada (15), Germany (26) or

America (78, 23). But this is the obvious and enchanting feature of the debate.

What is not obvious with respect to the first general feature of international education is the dominant influence of technology on the lives of all nations. As the cultural, economic, and lately the political environment is increasingly subjected to the influence of technology by the sheer forces of progress, the Convergence Hypothesis acquires more and more credence. According to the Convergence Hypothesis, as nations become increasingly interdependent, due to increased industrialization through trade and investment, they tend to face increasingly the same problems requiring the same solutions. But, as expected, when it comes to making decisions, there is no definition of the kind of knowledge needed to enable the receiver of education to decide what to do with it. In addition, the concensus on its desirability begins to thin out because of the second major characteristic of international education, the lack of clear definition.

2. WIDESPREAD LACK OF CLEAR DEFINITION OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

The second major characteristic of international education is quite interesting. It is like love, which is more practiced and less defined. This is so for good reasons. The emphasis on a variety of values that international education is supposed to serve is sufficient to explain the observed lack of clear definition of its nature and function. I suggest that "The Resource List" provided by Jamie P. Cloud and Lynn Parisi for "Defining Global Education " (16), be consulted by anyone who wants to establish the lack of clear definition of international education. Aside from Cloud and Parisi's list of sources ,excellent points of departure in any attempt to define global education are the works of J. M. Becker, "Goals for Global Education" (6); Cladwick F. Alger, "Global Education: Why? For Whom? About What?" (1); Steve Lamy, "Defining Global Education" (51); Reginald Smart, "The Goals and Definition of International Education" (85); and William A. Reinsmith, "The True Meaning of Education: A Radical Suggestion" (80).

C. EDUCATION AND TRAINING: AN UNCLEAR RELATIONSHIP

Aside from the problems pertaining to the diversity of view and the major characteristics of these views, problems of definition arise because international education is confused with international training at the conceptual level as well as at the implementation level. Endless numbers of quips and quotes attempt to illustrate the difference between education and training. We hear often the remark that it is a pitty that so many get a college training without getting a college education. Furthermore, the popular wisdom goes on to bring out the fact that education is not a head full of facts but knowing how and where to find the facts. I would assume, somewhere, the other half of the argument can also be found in some sort of a quip or quote; that is, the ability to use the facts wisely in making decisions that affect their lives as well as the lives of their fellow humans worldwide.

The distinction between education and training is significant not only at the conceptual level, but also at the operational level. "How Can One Know America, Who Only America Knows?" asks R.L. Nichols (68) to illustrate the difficulties in international programs which are factually "rich" and conceptually regional and narrow. Furthermore, by not keeping the distinction between education and training clear, the possibility of gains from comperative and international-education studies is small (3) and the benefits from the lessons of others such as the experience of England (39) will remain narrowly regional and useless to others with similar problems. This is the message which was conveyed by our distinguished hostess, Dr. Teh-Ming Pao in her address (11/12/87) where the two meanings --and derivative activities--were kept apart in her topic "Education and Economic Well Being: A Case Study of the Republic of China." In this light, a true international education is a liberal education which --in the language of John Henry Cardinal Newman, The Idea of a University-- "gives a man a clear, conscious view of his own opinions and judgements, a truth in developing them, an eloquence in expressing them, and a force in urging them."

III. THE ROLE AND LIMITATIONS OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN AN INCREASINGLY INTERDEPENDENT WORLD

If anything has come out from examining the anatomy of international education in the preceeding Part II, it is the fact that we are forced to raise the question of its functional capabilities and limitations as we enter the environment of the 21st century. And that environment is not very far away, either. It is only 12 years away, finding many educational institutions unprepared to offer their graduates the kind of education and training needed to cope with the complexities of the 21st century environment. In addition to knowing the essence of international education and the basic anatomy of the debate on it, an important point of departure for any decision maker, at any level in the hierarchy--strategic, tactical, operational--is to be aware of what international education can or should do for people who will be entering the labor market in the year 2000 and beyond, and who will be living in a world of unprecedented economic, social, technological, institutional, scientific, and cultural interdependence. Furthermore, the most elementary long range planning requires an administrative ability to trace each and every effect of international educational policy to its appropriate cause and limitations, actual or potential. In this part, I would like to examine this aspect of international education under two headings: (1) Functions and (2) Limitations.

A. THE FUNCTION OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE 21ST CENTURY

There are many problems in defining the function (content) and direction (focus and emphasis) in a world that in the 21st century will be united by more common interests. A basic problem is the failure to abstract from the complexities, expediencies, and narrow, parochial interests resulting in disordinate course proliferations and fragmentations. This prevents the creation of a system of universally applicable and acceptable values, which is consistent with the requirements of domestic and international balance and harmony. An equally important problem is the failure to bring the system to bear on the emerging issues of the 21st century, such as the issue of the New International Economic Order which sooner or later must be addressed at its roots and not at its periphery. Let me first start with the functions, which I think international education and the programs through which it will be implemented, ought or should perform. I see three functions that international education is called to perform in the 21st century: (1) The imparting of factual and other related knowledge about the world in its systemic composition; (2) the creation of intellectual abilities and skills to adapt to, and change, the world; and (3) its ability to function efficiently in the complex environment of the 21st century.

1. THE KNOWLEDGE FUNCTION

a. Content of the Knowledge Objective of International Education

There is a lot to be remembered about things that we come to "know" in the area of international education. An integral, but not crucial, factor in international education is memory. A person who claims competency in decision making and policy formulation in a world perspective must be able to recall certain specifics, such as terms and facts He should be able to select intelligently ways and means for dealing with such specifics as conventions, trends and sequences, conceptual structure of the respective field, criteria and methodology. Furthermore, an internationally educated person should be familiar with the general principles and generalizations applicable in the field of international interdependence.

2. THE INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES AND SKILLS FUNCTION OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

a. The Function of Comprehensive and Cognitive Skills. The world of the 21st century of business and economic interdependence, sophisticated technology, diverse social and cultural values, and political climate of conflict-avoidance calls for extraordinary ability to apprehend complexity and know how to simplify it, interpret it, and see and project its fullest implications.

b. Training of Competent Decision Makers. An equally important function of international education is the training of future decision makers to use abstractions in particular concrete situations. These abstractions may be in the form of general ideas, rules and procedures, or general methods that are dictated by the age of soft and hard technology in the technological environment of the 21st century. This seems to be the position supported by the results of the pilot project for building global citizenship reported by S.L. Hahn (37), Chadwick F. Alger's "Objectives of Global Education" (1), J.M. Beker's "Goals for Global Education" (6), John Goodland's insistence that the learner now must be placed at the world center (33), and Kaisa Sovolainen's perception of International Education in Vocational Schools (86). Sovolainen insists that since vocational school students learn practical skills, their exposure to international education must modify these skills with the infusion of a philosophy that makes them responsible citizens of the world. A skill of significant practical value is a skill of multicultural communication, which is very much in demand by the international businesses, particularly for those who are prepared to take positions of leadership in the management of international corporations (95).

c. Analytical Skills. The complexity of the international environment and its rapid change require the functionary of the 21st century to be able to disentangle any piece of communication into its major constituent parts or elements, clarify its content, and make all ideas, relationships, clear and explicit. Professor John Brademas considers this skill of utmost importance for the environment of the 21st century among the functions of international education (10). But analytical skills are needed even by the narrower interests and perspectives such as those recommended by L. Edmonson (24) for Black American educational interests in global nuclear war education, by C.L. Drake's eassay on the global perspectives of black studies (22), and by J.C. McConnell and Dodney A. Erickson's call for an analytical international pervective of geobusiness (57).

d. Synthetic Skills. Operating in the international environment of the 21st century, particularly the economic, cultural and technological environment, will call for synthetic skills of the highest caliber, skills which are not expected to be in abundant supply. These kinds of skills enable the decision maker to put together elements or parts of a situation, or problem, so that to form a whole, a sine qua non of orderly and intelligent decision making. It is a skill, which the colleges of business in the United States and abroad must develop on a larger scale. The situation is no different in other types of education. A.E. Conte and L.A. Cavaliere share this view and ask the serious question "Are Students Being Educated for the 21st Century?" (12) to which they respond by proposing what they call an "Infusion Model" for global perspectives. Thus, one of the most important challenges and problems in international education is to impart holistic skills in preparing young men and women for the environment of the 21st century along the lines suggested by H.E. Klitgaard in his "Awareness of Global Interdependence" (46). Educators around the world are becoming increasingly aware of the dangers of a fragmented and piecemeal type of international education and its obvious inconsistencies with the imperatives of the coming century. Voices for a global perspective, a holistic, synthetic perspective are becoming many and louder. E. Osunde's call for a global perpective in the social studies of African Schools (72) and G. Otero's calls in Mexico, for school improvement that is conducive to a global education (73) will soon become frequent and more articulate as B. Davison's urging for international databases (18) spreads around the world as an idea and as an efficient operational system.

e. Evaluative Skills. Nowhere are the challenges and problems facing international education so demanding as in the area of evaluative skills. The ability to evaluate situations, problems, things, and people in terms of internal and external evidence is in short supply because the educational process fails to establish standards of reference derived from the previously stated skills. Professor Kniep in his provocative article "Defining Global Education By Its Content" (48), presents a well-structured argument in stressing both the synthetic as as the evaluative function of international education. Let us not forget that a person with cultivated evaluative skills is a person who is able to see faster and clearer "commonality within diversity, through a cumulative sense of global interdependence." In a global situation, a model builder must also be able to understand and cultivate "universal human values that transcend group identity, and the diverse values that define group membership and contribute to our unique perspectives and world views" (48:437).

3. THE EFFICIENCY FUNCTION OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Any system, including the educational system, can be evaluated along two fundamental dimensions, each being significantly different than the other. These are (a) the dimension of effectiveness; and (b) the dimension of efficiency. The environment of the 21st century will demand clarity in the definition and the production of the desired outcomes or effects (effectiveness) and its intense competitiveness will demand delivery of services at an ever-increasing efficiency. Efficiency differs from effectiveness in that in the standard of effectiveness, the production of the desired outcomes, inputs are irrelevant. In the standard of efficiency, we must relate each desired outcome, marginally or incrementally, to the size and quality of the necessary outputs. You may begin to discern the role of the university president in the function of international education. I will, however, discuss it in Part IV. Suffice it to say that effectiveness is related to efficiency as production is related to productivity. The higher the quality of the desired outcomes, the higher the need for efficiency considerations.

B. FACTORS AFFECTING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Any attempt to classify the factors that affect the effectiveness and quality of international education programs will always leave something to be desired. Guided from management's point of view, I propose to discuss the factors that shape the nature and content of international education under two headings. First, I will discuss the factors that are not under the control of educational decision makers under the heading "Factors External to the Educational Process"; and, second, I will discuss the factors that are under the heading "Factors Internal to the Educational Process."

1. FACTORS EXTERNAL TO THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

An indisputable development in the international demographic environment is the fact that as of July 14, 1987, our planet is inhabited by 5.5 billion people who are bound to have direct and indirect effects on the supply and demand sides in both product and factor international markets. Consequently, one of the greatest follies, and self-deceipts, in the 21st century environment is planning under the philosophy of self-sufficiency. There is a structural (permanent) transformation in business and economic life as well as in other aspects of life worldwide, which educational planning cannot ignore without serious consequences occurring. The world of the 21st century will be characterized by an interdependence of unprecedented scale and content. This increasing interdependence has silently, but permanently, altered the decision-making environments-- economic, technological, social, political, and cultural. These changes will significantly affect the nature and content of international education.

I feel much closer to Harlan Cleveland and the position he takes about the world we are preparing our school children for. Our children, he says, "...will be part of a manifest destiny, less assertive in perception, yet worldwide in its scope and action" (14:416). This world will require the educational system to help learners acquire a feel of (a) their own needs as well as the needs of people everywhere; (b) the interrelated global changes that will provide most of the context for their 50+ of adult life; (c) the limited usefulness of violence and the widening dimensions of national security; (d) the rolling global readjustments in what people produce and consume, and do for living which will affect the job and career of each grown-up child; (e) the lesson from history that it is possible for people, and peoples, to resolve conflicts and work together; (f) the cultural diversity and mandatory pluralism -- and therefore, everybody is in charge; and, lastly, (g) the nature of leadership in such a world -- since whatever the issue, the U.S.A. is bound to be elected to the global executuve committee that must deal with it. (14:416).

The effects of changes in the politico-legal and military climate on the various regions of the world will be significant. The European education is already significantly affected by developments in the Common Market and will be more so if what J.C. Frederick sees in Europe:An Emerging Nation? (29) materializes. Of much more significant influence not only for the fate of international education, but for life on this planet as we know it, will be the expected signing of the treaty for the elimination of the nuclear weapons by the superpowers, and the hopefully closer cooperation in other areas, including education.

2. FACTORS INTERNAL TO THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

The Japanese experience indicates, as my colleagues from Japan have communicated to me, problems external as well as internal to the educational process exist because of failure to make, what I will call, integrative adjustments. These are one of the three types of strategic responses to changes in the environment, whereby the goals of the educational process are blended with those of the changing world. I distinguish the integrative type of strategic response from the other two of lesser promise: the adaptive strategy and the reactive strategy. The adaptive strategy is adopted after some significant change in the international environment is already under way.The educational process is adopted to a change in the environment that may not have been anticipated. The proactive strategy is usually adopted because of the felt need to "get on top" of the changes that are occuring in the international environment. While this strategy is a step ahead of the reactive type,it is an attempt to manipulate the environment in ways that wil be to the decision maker's advantages.

It is in the integrative strategy that the Gibbon- Newman type of suggested approaches to curriculum construction(31), and Folk and Molly's requirement of "Cosmopolitan Motiff" (21) must be seen. Likewise the Christensen-Whittaker's"Rationale for University Involvement in the International Arena " (13) advises the use of the integrative strategy. However, bringing global education to the unversity community will, also, be significantly affected by the quality of accumulated penumbra of professional faculty. What all this means is that the university which is heading towards the 21st century is an institution that has long ago started to engage in long range planning in which (a) goals, objectives, resources, policies and rules, (b) organizational changes, (c) human resources and (d) intra and inter-institutional systems of communication and control are integrated into a master plan specifically formulated and adopted to handle the dmands of the 21st century.

Furthermore, the effectiveness and efficiency of international education will be significantly affected by by institutional developments in the manner discussed by Professor Duane Kujawa(49). For example, expansion, or rather the spreading of the practice of having the President of the Academy of International Business as an Ex Officio member in the International Affairs Committee(IAC) of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business(AACSB) is one of the number of ways institutional involvement can affect the quality and direction of international education. The role of the United Nations with their International Years, is another example of institutional influence. In more than one ways , it reminds the educational decision maker of the increasing world interdependence and the need to respond and adjust accordingly. These International Years--and the multisided work of UNESCO--provide a model of educational cooperation which is worth heeding to(21).Finally, the role of educational foundations will be determined by changes in the philosophy and direction of foundation resource management. Some insights of how foundations will influence international education are to be found in P. Deruisseaux's analysis of the "$20-Million Hitachi Foundation to promote cross-cultural Understanding"(20).

From a longer run perspective international education in the United States and elsewhere, will be significantly affected by the extent to which creative programming places the student, from elementary level on, in the center of the world system(33). When the student reaches the decision making stage in his life cycle, he will be aware that the world is made up of worldwide systems-- the worldwide physical system, the worldwide biological system, the worldwide social system, the worldwide political system,the worldwide evaluative system, in addition to the worldwide economic system. Keneth Boulding(The World as a Total System:Beverly Hills, 1985) observes that the evaluative system is the least clear as a system that seeks to help people everywhere make judgements and choices(pp.151-157).International education cannot escape the influence from improvements or lack of improvements in the world evaluative system, which will be both its effect in one stage, and its cause in another.

Closely associated with the long run educational creativity is the drive to lift thinking about global education to new conceptual levels by serious institutional work such as that of the Global Perspectives on Education carried out by the National Study Commission in the United States. Professor Kniep (Global Education: The Road Ahead," Social Education(October,1986), p.415)gives the following excerpts from the Commission's Report concerning the direction of attention in strengthening the global dimensions of school programs:

- Adoption of appropriate global education policies by state legislative bodies and local school boards.
- Encouragement of curriculum development at the local level, including greater teacher involvment.
- Providing for adequate teacher education in the substance and method of global education
- Development of innovative cirricular strategies for bringing global education into the educational mainstream.
- Establishment of school-university and community partnerships, and of research and development centers in support of global studies.

In the framework of the preceeding observations, it should be easy to see that the degree to which educational planning is based on clear, attainable and verifiable goals and objectives and the degree to which it obeys the principles of commitment, flexibility and navigational change,human and material resources will be optimally utilized. Questions such as whether foreign students now entering the colleges and universities in all countries will be a source of enrichment or a wasted resource(28) will be partly answered by educational planning that is truly international in purpose and structure.

IV. THE DEBATE ON INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN EMPIRICAL PERSPECTIVE

For this part of my presentation I have chosen the heading "Empirical Perspectives" because it provides a useful link between the functions and limitations of international education in Part III, and the examination of the problems of implementation, which is the subject of Part V, the last part of my presentation. Whatever the choice of words, a fundamental position in the part is that the current state of the debate and its various manifestations cannot be grasped clearly unless one knows, and settles with its past. In this light, I plan to give you a brief account of its historical position, the role of the university president, and an assessment of its current state. Lastly, I will briefly summarize my views, and will attempt to draw the appropriate conclusions.

A. A QUICK LOOK AT ITS EVOLUTION

I suspect that the evolution of the attitude towards international education in my country, as well as in other countries, could be a fascinating object of study for anyone who likes to seriously trace its origin in the depths of time. Much could be learned by bringing to bear on our quest for the future function of international education all the experience, in success and failure, of the past. As far back as Aristotle, there was a problem in defining the function of education. There was no concensus: "The existing practice is perplexing; no one knows on what principle we should proceed--should the useful, or should virtue, or should the higher knowledge, be the aim of our training; all three options have been entertained." (*Politics*, Book VIII, in the *Basic Works of Aristotle*, ed., Richard McKoen (New York Random House, 1941), pg. 1306). Both sides of the globe, as well as the "North-South" newcomers in the debate, could gain a lot from such a historical study of this very important problem facing mankind. We are at a point in time that ethnic parochialism can be easily seen in its true light as never before.

What I would like, however, to bring to the attention of this conference is the commonplace fact that international education, as we are currently contemplating it, is a post World War II phenomenon. It is a kind of interesting interface development between the 20th and the 21st Centuries. Much time and money has been expended in understanding and promoting international education in the postwar years and much can be gained from its review and critical evaluation. David V. Dell can be of initial help to anyone who is willing to do assessment work with his "Readings for Global Curriculum," in *Education and World Review*, published by the Council on Education in the May/June, 1982 issue of the *Change* magazine. It is a good source for the president of the university to start, not only to clarify the rationale for international education, but also, to critically evaluate the present and future presidential role in it.

B. THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY PRESIDENT IN, AND THE RATIONALE FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION OF EDUCATION

1. THE RATIONALE

Let's first start with the rationale for internationalizing education at all levels, particularly the higher education level. In America, and I would assume in other countries as well, the call for internationalization takes the form of "Let Us Internationalize Our Marketing Students," on the basis that "today the environment of business is international, but the typical outlook of the American business is provincial," (34:28). It is interesting to note that when international education is looked upon from a specific field's vantage point the picture which emerges is one of continuous adaptation to changes in the economic, social, political, technological and cultural environment. The current demand for international education, and its projection into the 21st Century reflects the need for a new international education structured around Debouvais' premise that the world is a world of increasing interdependence in all spheres of intellectual and practical activities (19).

There appears to be a strong movement emerging around the world by separate disciplines whose epicentre is the riddling of traditional parochialism in education (82). The pressure is high to put the liberal arts into a new international perspective (91), to reassess and rank existing business programs in American Universities (5) as well as European Universities (25). Europeans are becoming increasingly aware that the nature, content and direction of international education is on "shifting sands" (67). From 1984 onwards, European Universities are changing priorities in favor of technological education and its ethical constraints. This, it is said, seems to be the most predominant development and will continue well into the 21st Century, in technology-based education in a veriety of countries.

In the middle level of education the pressure is no less. It is said that the critical world issues, such as peace and security issues, development issues, environmental issues, human rights issues, be suitably incorporated into the educational programs for international education (17:48). To this effect, symposia are held, like our conference, with special attention to the global education needed for high schools in the complex world of the 21st Century (32).

An emerging issue of gigantic proportions, which will persist well into the 21st Century is the issue of North-South relationships as a result of the demand for a new international economic order. Although it will take great multilateral efforts and wide international cooperation for its resolution, the issue presents both a challenge and opportunity for international education around the world. Graig M. Murphy in his very persuasive argument "What the Third World Wants: Interpretation of the New International Economic Order," (67), makes a dramatic call for redefining the content and the direction of international education. This issue is also central in John Oxeham's proposed role of international education in the emerging demand for a new international economic order, and in Thomas Membratu's more articulate statement of the role of the universities on this complex issue (62). They all seem to indicate and define a kind of a starting point in the effort to redirect thought and action in preparing for the world of the 21st Century.

2. THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY PRESIDENT

In the light of the preceeding remarks, with regard to the rationale for international education around the world, the question we may ask--quite pertinent to the majority of this body--is: What is the role of the university president as we are approaching the doorsteps of the 21st Century? The answer I will attempt to provide to this question reflects the restricted view of a professor of management which has been defined as the art of getting things done through the efforts of others.

A university president is the institution's highest ranked decision maker below the board of trustees, who has been hired and is paid to make decisions that affect the life and the fortunes not only of the members of the university community but of society at large as well. In this capacity, the university president may become an extremely efficient catalyst in the total effort to internationalize courses, curricular and programs by acting along three levels of decision making: stratigic, tactical and operational.

At the strategic level, the president and his "cabinet" can and should reassess the mission of the university as a whole, and from this reassessment direct the university as a whole, and from this reassessment direct the university towards new goals from which feasible objectives can be formulated. This call for a teamwork which should include all relevant constituencies of the university.

At the tactical level, the role of the president is equally crucial. It has to do with the acquisition and allocation (budgeting) of the needed resources, enlightened policies for their use, and rules and procedures that are conducive to their efficient utilization. Dr. Hans Peter Jensen, rector of Denmark's Denmarks Tekniske Hojkole topic, "Fincancing the Educational Experience" is descriptive of the role of the university president at the tactical level of decision making in the area of international education.

At the operational level, the university president is the least effective, let alone efficient, due to increased specialization. However, the role of the university president at this level is very significant because of its indirect effect through progressive types of policies and procedures that may, as experience teaches, totally absorb the substance and purpose of it all.

C. THE CURRENT STATE OF THE DEBATE ON INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

The point I am trying to make with the significance I am attaching to historical perspectives and the areas of concentration of the debate is important both in the geographic sense as well as the content-and-level-of-attention sense. We cannot know with the requisite clarity where we must go unless we know where they have been. I have given you the need for historical identification as well as the geographic and content-level direction of the debate. What remains for the completeness of the analysis is an assessment of its current state.

In searching the relevant works on the matter I find the narrow, disciplinary approach most prevelant. What I have in mind is the type of evaluative work like that of Robert L. Pfatzgraft, Jr., (76) in the area of international studies and similar assessments in other areas of interest. Most of these works attempt to ascertain the impact of the community approach to developing citizenship and promoting world affairs (100) and the impact of the expanded role of international education in higher education (63).

In looking at the current state of the international education debate, it is safe to say that it is characterised by a well-founded optimism as the horizons of international education are broadening in a world which is becoming increasingly "smaller" (50). This does not imply that in America, and other countries as well, a great number of students at all levels of education remain ignorant and uninformed about other countries and have little interest in world problems (64). However, this does not, and should not prevent top management of the university, everywhere, from rigorous and critical evaluation of the changing state of global education. The implication for each of us here, in this conference, is that each should begin work on the construction of appropriate agendas for the future in the manner suggested by B. B. Tye and K. A. Tye (94).

As we begin the construction of the appropriate agendas for the future, I would like to suggest a frame of reference which emenates from the way I assess the current state of international education, first with respect to its orientation and second with respect to its functional areas. The content and direction of international education is of four types: (1) Ethnocentric; (2) Polycentric; (3) Regiocentric; and (4) Geocentric.

1. The Ethnocentric types, all around the world, are structured and directed from the nation's best interests point of view. In this frame, the mission of the university and matters of its governance, (such as direction, communication and allocation of resources, strategy, structure and culture) are all circumscribed by the national and nationalistic interests and standards. The same holds true of its functional areas of technology, marketing, finance and personnel. Home values and standards predominate.

2. The Polycentric types of international education are structures that emphasize education of people that enables them to make intelligent and constrained decisions from various centers around the world and the home country being one of them. Under this frame of reference, the institutional orientation as well as the functional areas are structured accordingly. In the case of institutional orientation, mission, governance, strategy and structure, as well as the functional areas of technology, marketing, finance, and personnel practices bear the mark of the polycentric standards.

3. The Regiocentric types of international education are region-oriented. Mission, governance, strategy and structure of international education is governed by regional interests and ties. Matters of

functional prerequisites, such as technology, marketing, finance and personnel, are decided on purely regional considerations from the relevant points of view.

4. The Geocentric types of international education are structures that have the whole globe as their basic frame of reference. Mission, governance, strategy, and structure as well as the functional areas of technology, marketing, finance, and personnel are all dictated by a truly internation, global philosophy that starts and ends with the world, not the region, or home only or any of the many centers of active involvement (polycentric).

V. PROGRAMS OF IMPLEMENTATION: THE EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY EXPERIENCE

I have gone a full circle in presenting some of the most significant problems facing international education as we approach the 21st Century. I have purposefully stayed away from, what my college from the Netherlands called, "the box" aspect of the theme of our conference; but I did not intend to ignore it. Somewhere along the line, any discussion on "ends" must, by necessity, shift to "means." Please, allow me to amke some general observations on this matter, then proceed with a brief description of the Eastern Michigan University experience on the ends and means of international education.

A. THE ROLE OF THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN PARIS, FRANCE

The International Institute for Educational Planning in Paris (60) could very well function as a catalyst in the planning for international education. Few will deny the benefits from seeking its good offices. While it may be true that short-run considerations, which go by the name "expediency," may make it necessary for policy makers, to select the "tools" that justify the "ends," in the long run it is always the ends that justify the means, ex post facto, so to speak. When the ends are ill-defined, the value and function of the means can hardly be assessed accurately. We, the educators, who must walk in the classroom to prepare for and deliver a "product" to society, have to know clearly what kind of "beachheads" we are trying to establish in the area of international education (34). This must happen before we get to considering any technique or "means" from the proposed listing of "Techniques for International Education," (88), or any of the "Affordable Quality of International Programming for the 1980's," (39), let alone computer-assisted international studies like those in the Department of Government and Politics at the University of Maryland (98).

B. INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION AT EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

I would be remiss of my professional responsibility, and the purpose for being here, if I did not share with you our expereince at Eastern Michigan University in planning and implementation of international education.

1. THE WORLD BUSINESS COMMITTEE

A World Business Committee was set up for the internationalization project. It was funded by Eastern Michigan University and the U.S. Department of Education Undergraduate Studies and Foreign Languages Program (CFDA No. 84.016). Membership to the committee came from a balanced, cross section of faculty and administrators from the College of Arts and Sciences, Department of Foreign Languages and the various academic department of the College of Business.

2. FUNDS AWARDED FOR DESIGNING AND OFFERING JOINT DEGREE PROGRAMS

Administration and faculty at Eastern Michigan University, particularly in the College of Arts and Sciences, Language and International Trade Program, and the College of Business were awarded funds to design and offer joint-degree programs in foreign language application and in the principles and practices of international business.

3. OBJECTIVE

Our objective--our "end"--was to assist in reversing the decline of the United States as a major force in the worldwide integrated market. As you can see, this objective places right smack in the center of the first species of the Transnationalist view of the world, the Free Enterprise Internationalist view.

4. JOINT DEGREE REQUIREMENTS

Because of our stated philosophical orientation, the joint degree requires language proficiency, along with solid foundation in the principles and practices of international business.

5. THE ROLE OF CONSULTANTS

I must mention at this point the significant role which the consultants played in the Committee's work. Consultants from the United States as well as from Europe were brought on campus to advise the Committee on the content and direction of its work.

6. THE END RESULT: THE JOINT DEGREE PROGRAM

The end result was the newly accredited program: Bachelor of Business Administration/ Bachelor of Arts in Language and World Business. All participants in this conference are supplied with our official brochure in your mailboxes. It describes, in the appropriate detail, the nature and content of the joint degree program which was accepted by the Regents of Eastern Michigan University on September 23, 1987.

7. INCORPORATION AND CHANGES IN COURSES

The project has involved the suffusing of 17 existing courses with international elements and the development of 5 new courses in world business and related areas. In addition, it became necessary to correlate both business and language studies with international advances in technology, business and manufacturing practices and to expand the existing International Cooperative Student Exchange Program.

8. THE CHANGE AGENTS

At this point I must mention central figure in the total effort of internationalizing education at Eastern Michigan University. From the College of Business, Department of Management, has been Professor Gaston DesHarnais. He is currently Project Director of the World Business and Intercollegiate Internationalization of the Curriculum Title VI Grant. An equally effective and efficient "prime mover" in this enterprise has been Professor Raymond Schaub, from the Language and International Trade Program. He is now the Director of World College, a university-wide coordinating organization of international education at Eastern

Michigan University, approved and funded by the Regents of Eastern Michigan University.

9. PILOTING AND SCHEDULED IMPLEMENTATION

Under the leadership of these two persons and their able associates, the entire program has been piloted since the beginning of the Fall Semester of 1986 and is now heading for full implementation in the Winter Semester, 1988. All proposed elements, most of them piloted, have been integrated into the program. Suffusion of other courses beyond the core is continuing. The joint degree provides "global" education and training for careers in business management and communication, marketing coordination, transportation and logistics, finance and accounting, and human resources and staff development.

10.. IMPLEMENTATION METHODS

In implementing the program at the instructional level, both the College of Arts and Sciences and the College of Business are supplementing the language and world business components with team-taught seminars and a set of cultural, jointly taught courses drawing on political science, history, geography and economics.

11. INFORMATION DISSEMINATION ABOUT THE JOINT DEGREE PROGRAM

The College of Business of Eastern Michigan University and the College of Arts and Sciences, Department of Foreign Languages, Language and International Trade Program and Languages and World Business Program are jointly sponsoring the seventh Annual Conference on Languages and Communication for World Business and the Professions to be held in Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA, April 7-9, 1988. This conference has special endorsement from the Michigan Council for the Humanities and the Association for Business Communication.

12. EXPANDED ROLE OF THE COOPERATIVE EDUCATION NETWORK

The last point worth mentioning about the Eastern Michigan University's joint degree program is the expanded role of the university's cooperative education network. The concomitant expansion of the Cooperative Education Exchange Network will, from now on, include the new joint majors and in consequence, will introduce well trained, language-proficient graduates into the world of international finance, production, and trade.

C. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. SUMMARY

Let me summarize the main points of my presentation. I have structured and presented my subject in an order which hoped to be both realistic and meaningful in the environment of the waning 20th Century and for the environment of the approaching 21st Century.

I have started out in Part I with the position that international education is an extension of education at home. Its essence consists in preparing young people to discover and utilize intelligently and responsibly factual and intellectual information for their individual benefit as well as for the benefit of society.

Subsequently, Part II looked into the essence of international education from the point of view of various schools of thought, their major key characteristics, and the relationship between education and training as it relates to world issues and problems.

In Part III, I have presented, in some detail, the major functions of international education and examined the factors that limit and affect its effectiveness.

In Part IV, I brought out certain empirical aspects of temporal, spatial and posture type. I noted that international education, as we understand the term today, is a post World War II phenomenon with a unique rationale that is changing the role of the university president and noted, also, the fervor characterizing the debate around the world. Subsequently, I reported to you the Eastern Michigan University experience with the internationalization of the university education.

Finally, in Part V I made a brief reference to the potentially catalytic role of the Institute for International Education Planning in Paris, France, and shared with you our experience at Eastern Michigan University in internationalizing the internationalization of business education and foreign languages.

2. CONCLUSIONS

From the discussion of the essence of international education, its descriptive dimensions, its view in a cause-effect framework, the empirical aspects of time, space and current state, along with the examination of selected implementation schemes of worldwide and restricted scope, the following conclusions can reasonably be drawn:

a. There seems to be a concensus of what the essence of education and international education is, in principle. Its "universality," however, in practice is at variance with that in principle.

b. The examination of the various images of the world leaves us with the question: which is the most appropriate and the most accomodating to the goals and values of international education under the constraints we have brought out? It is not difficult to conclude that any serious preparation for the next century makes the study of all an important imperative. They have all contributed to the content and purpose of global education programs. These images of the world continue to define the educational priorities of most educational programs.

c. With respect to the two major characteristics of international education, that of the widespread desirability and the widespread lack of clear definition, the most appropriate conclusion is that the first reflects the need for more articulation of goals and purposes of international education, and the second is a testimony to the reality of pluralism that exists in this area of study. To the extent that no one perspective claims to be the only perspective on how the world operates, the apparent lack of clarity stands excellent chances of improvement.

d. It is important that the relationship between education and training be kept clearly in perspective. Remembering the complementary nature of the relationship between them, we can design programs that significantly contribute to the solution of world problems, an integral part of which are our domestic problems.

e. In contemplating and designing the functions of international education we must distinguish between goals and objectives given the clearly stated mission of the university. Goals are levels of aspiration that are timeless. Objectives, derived from goals, are time-circumscribed: short-term, medium-term and long-term. Goals and objectives are relaistic when they are looked upon as the effects of certain causes or limiting factors.

f. The benefits that can be derived from the historical perspective are significant as long as we cease looking at the history as a record of events.

g. International education at all levels, particularly at the university level, is an institutional commitment. The role of the university president can be significant only if carried out within the functions of management framework of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling.

h. Planning the international education for the 21st Century will be most efficient if undertaken and carried out in any one of the emerging orientations: Ethnocentric, polycentric, regiocentric and geocentric.

i. Internationalization plans, in the form of various educational programs and schemes, must be flexible, economical and timely in order to enjoy maximum acceptance and support.

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Internationalizing the Introductory Accounting Course

A Case History of the Nitty Gritty

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Internationalizing the Introductory Accounting Course
A Case History of the Nitty Gritty

This case outlines a method currently used to internationalize an introductory financial accounting course. The approach has been developed over a six year period. During that time both the objectives of and approach to internationalization changed. This paper describes the nature of those changes and then presents outlines of the international components currently used in the course. It concludes with an assessment of the costs and benefits of the internationalization project.

The reasons for internationalizing often determine the method by which international elements are added to a course. In this case the internationalization of the introductory accounting course was initially triggered by accreditation requirements and personal interests. The objective was to provide students with basic information about international aspects of accounting. Thus, international modules were developed to supplement the regular content. At the end of the course four class periods were devoted to the following issues: (1) deciphering foreign financial statements with "different" valuation bases, e.g. the replacement cost based statements of Phillips of the Netherlands; (2) alternative methods of establishing accounting standards, e.g. the U.S. approach versus those used in France and the U.K.; (3) international standards and organizations, i.e. the International Accounting Standards Committee and the European Economic Community; and (4) foreign currency translation.

In general, the students responded favorably to the modules and tested reasonably well on the material presented in them. However, certain aspects of the approach caused some concern. At the time (1982) there was a relative insufficiency of suitable materials available for students at the introductory level. Many potential reading assignments required extensive supplementary explanations or advanced technical skills not taught in the course. As a consequence, the presentation mode was nearly all lecture. Furthermore, as the material was not presented in the textbook, students appeared to perceive it as "extra". Some commented that although it was interesting, it was not really necessary (only "supplementary") and , therefore, "less important". It appeared that this notion was reinforced by the fact that the international materials were presented at the end of the course, after all the materials in the basic text had been completed.

These comments and perceptions caused reexamination of the objectives of and approach to the internationalization process. As a consequence, the objective was broadened. **The new objective was to use international components to create in students a keen understanding of the nature of financial accounting information and reporting in the United States and the degree to which that nature is a function of our culture.**

International components were created to enhance students' understanding of all aspects of the course content-- from the seemingly mundane (format and presentation of statements), through the abstruse (valuation principles and measurement issues), to the highly controversial (the politics of standard setting). The previously-described modules were revised and expanded. In addition, a number of international "elements" were added. "Elements" are individual items used to highlight a particular point or issue of U.S. reporting by providing an international basis for comparison. The elements and modules were integrated throughout the course. Each component has dual goals: (1) to meet the immediate objectives specified in the individual module or element and (2) to meet the broad objective of internationalization by contributing to students' understanding of the social and cultural determinants of accounting. A supplementary text [Mueller, Gernon, and Meek's Accounting, An International Perspective (Irwin, 1987)] was added to the required materials. This text is easily comprehended by the students and relatively inexpensive. It provides the basic readings assigned for the modules.

The following section begins with an outline of the topics covered in this introductory financial accounting course. It should be noted that the course is oriented to the use (rather than the preparation) of financial statements and is, accordingly, quite conceptual. The outline of topics in the course indicates where each of the elements and modules is presented. The course outline is followed by a description of each of the elements and modules currently used in the revised course. For each item objectives are explained, content indicated, and techniques described.

Topics Covered in Introductory Financial Accounting

1. Accounting and its role in society (Element #1)
2. Present value approach to investment decisions
3. Income determination (Element #2)
4. Statement of financial position (Element #3)
5. Statement of cash flows
6. The accounting cycle
7. Dissemination and content of corporate financial reports - ratio analysis
8. Policy and institutional structure of accounting standard setting - the FASB and the SEC (Module #1)
9. Auditing- (Element #4)
10. Alternative valuations - current cost and price level adjustments (Module #2)
11. Revenue recognition - long-term contracts and installment sales
12. Receivables and bad debts
13. Inventories
14. Property, plant, and equipment
15. Intangibles
16. Liabilities
17. Deferred taxes
18. Shareholders' equities; dividends, splits, and treasury stock
19. Intercorporate investment
20. Foreign currency translation (Module#3)
21. Disclosures: geographic segments, lines of business, and so forth (Module #4)
22. Institutional setting of international accounting standard setting (Module #5)

Element #1 - (15 minutes)

Objective : provide background. on international nature of accounting

Handouts : none

In the first class meeting students are informed that the primary objective of the course is to teach them to understand financial accounting information. The annual report of a publicly traded corporation is distributed. This year the 1986 report of Johnson & Johnson is being used. The contents and general organization of the report are discussed. In the examination of the statement of financial position students encounter the "cumulative currency translation adjustment" in the shareholders' equity section. This is a natural lead-in to discussion of the multinational character of business and of accounting as the international language of business. The language metaphor is a motif of the course. Accounting is treated as an international language with various "dialects".

In this first element the basic history of the development and spread of accounting is conveyed. The story of Fra Luca Pacioli, the spread of accounting to Northern Europe and the arrival of British auditors in America are briefly described. These descriptions are followed by a brief summary of the re-export of accounting from the U.S. and the international expansion of large accounting firms.

Teaching references: (1) Derek T. Bailey's "European Accounting History" in International Accounting, edited by H. Peter Holzer (Harper and Row, 1984); (2) Mary E. Murphy's "The British Accounting Tradition in America" in Journal of Accountancy, April, 1961, pp. 54-63; and (3) "Introduction" to Mueller, Gernon, and Meek's Accounting, An International Perspective, pp. 1-8.

Element #2 - (8-10 minutes)

Objective: reinforce the components of income in the U.S.

Handouts: income statements from (1) Johnson & Johnson (1986) and (2) the Saab-Scania Group (1985, Swedish) and (3) the Saab-Scania note on appropriations.

As the statements are compared, attention is drawn to the Swedish deduction of "appropriations" (and the related note). The notions of "income smoothing" and "reserves" are discussed, and the constraints on elements allowed on the income statement in the U.S. are enumerated. Then, discussion as to why the U.S. has chosen this approach is generated.

1986 INCOME STATEMENT FROM JOHNSON & JOHNSON

Johnson & Johnson and Subsidiaries

Consolidated Statement of Earnings and Retained Earnings

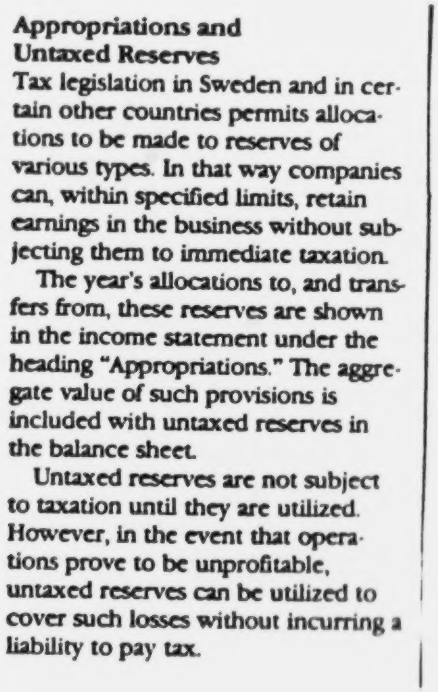
Dollars in Millions Except Per Share Figures (Note 1)	1986	1985	1984
Revenues			
Sales to customers (Note 3)	**$7,002.9**	6,421.3	6,124.5
Other revenues			
Interest income	**99.9**	107.3	84.5
Royalties and miscellaneous	**65.0**	48.1	38.0
Total revenues	**7,167.8**	6,576.7	6,247.0
Costs and expenses			
Cost of products sold	**2,630.1**	2,594.2	2,469.4
Selling, distribution and administrative expenses	**2,867.9**	2,516.0	2,488.4
Research expense	**521.3**	471.1	421.2
Interest expense	**87.4**	74.8	86.1
Interest expense capitalized	**(21.8)**	(28.9)	(35.0)
Redirection charges (Note 2)	**540.0**	—	—
Other expenses (Note 3)	**152.1**	50.3	61.8
Total costs and expenses	**6,777.0**	5,677.5	5,491.9
Earnings before provision for taxes on income	**390.8**	899.2	755.1
Provision for taxes on income (Note 9)	**61.3**	285.5	240.6
Net earnings (Notes 2 and 3)	**329.5**	613.7	514.5
Retained earnings at beginning of period	**3,499.6**	3,119.1	2,824.5
Cash dividends paid (per share: 1986, $1.375; 1985, $1.275; 1984, $1.175)	**(244.7)**	(233.2)	(219.9)
Retained earnings at end of period	**$3,584.4**	3,499.6	3,119.1
Net earnings per share (Notes 1, 2 and 3)	**$ 1.85**	3.36	2.75

1985 INCOME STATEMENT FROM SAAB-SCANIA GROUP (SWEDISH)

Consolidated Statement of Income

SEK millions			*1985*		*1984*
Operating revenue	Sales		31,840.2		25,955.7
Operating expenses	Manufacturing, selling and administrative expenses (Note 1)		−28,339.1		−22,636.9
Operating income before depreciation			**3,501.1**		3,318.8
Depreciation according to plan (Note 2)			−993.1		−845.6
Operating income after depreciation			**2,508.0**		2,473.2
Financial income and expenses	Dividends	32.8		28.4	
	Interest income (Note 3)	1,009.8		885.4	
	Interest expenses (Note 3)	−860.7		−927.9	
	Currency differences (Note 4)	70.9	252.8	63.0	48.9
Income after financial income and expenses			**2,760.8**		2,522.1
Extraordinary income and expenses (Note 5)			15.2		32.5
Income before appropriations and taxes (Note 6)			**2,776.0**		2,554.6
Appropriations (Note 7)			−1,540.8		−1,444.8
Income before taxes			**1,235.2**		1,109.8
Taxes (Note 8)			−587.4		−421.1
Income after taxes			**647.8**		688.7
Minority interest in subsidiaries' profit (Note 9)			−5.1		−6.6
Net income			**642.7**		682.1
Income per share, after full taxes, SEK (Note 10)			**60.00**		56.35
Income per share, after taxes paid, SEK (Note 10)			**92.10**		87.35
Pre-tax return on total assets			**14.5%**		16.4%
After-tax return on stockholders' equity			**18.0%**		20.5%

"Appropriations" note from page 46 of Saab-Scania's 1985 report



Appropriations and Untaxed Reserves

Tax legislation in Sweden and in certain other countries permits allocations to be made to reserves of various types. In that way companies can, within specified limits, retain earnings in the business without subjecting them to immediate taxation.

The year's allocations to, and transfers from, these reserves are shown in the income statement under the heading "Appropriations." The aggregate value of such provisions is included with untaxed reserves in the balance sheet.

Untaxed reserves are not subject to taxation until they are utilized. However, in the event that operations prove to be unprofitable, untaxed reserves can be utilized to cover such losses without incurring a liability to pay tax.

Element #3 - (10 minutes)

Objective: reinforce the format of the balance sheet in the U.S.

Handouts: Balance sheets from (1) Johnson & Johnson (1986) and (2) the British Petroleum Company

In comparing the reports attention is drawn to the ordering and presentation in each case. British Petroleum lists its fixed assets first and current ones second. It also nets assets against liabilities so that the final totals presented are "net assets" and "BP shareholders' interest". The Johnson & Johnson report, with its standard U.S. focus on the equality of "total assets" and "total liabilities and stockholders' equity", is contrasted with the BP approach. The intent is to provide a basis of comparison so that students might (1) attend to the specifics of standard formats in the U.S. and (2) be reminded that the particular format choices made in the U.S. are not the only possible selections that one might make.

2-86

1986 JOHNSON & JOHNSON STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION

Johnson & Johnson and Subsidiaries **Consolidated Balance Sheet**

At December 28, 1986 and December 29, 1985, Dollars in Millions (Note 1)	1986	1985
Assets		
Current assets		
Cash and cash items	$ 166.7	129.2
Marketable securities, at cost, which approximates market value	785.8	606.4
Accounts receivable, trade, less allowances $40.5 (1985, $39.7)	856.6	959.4
Inventories (Notes 1 and 5)	1,010.5	955.1
Prepaid expenses and other receivables (Notes 2 and 9)	382.0	246.4
Total current assets	3,201.6	2,896.5
Marketable securities, non-current, at cost, which approximates market value	156.4	148.7
Property, plant and equipment, net (Notes 1 and 6)	1,916.3	1,839.9
Deferred taxes on income (Note 9)	43.2	—
Intangible assets, net (Notes 1 and 7)	393.1	76.9
Other assets	166.1	133.1
Total assets	$5,876.7	5,095.1
Liabilities and Stockholders' Equity		
Current liabilities		
Loans and notes payable (Note 8)	$1,010.3	229.3
Accounts payable	512.3	401.4
Accrued liabilities (Note 2)	502.2	328.7
Taxes on income	94.2	65.3
Salaries, wages and commissions	116.7	95.1
Miscellaneous taxes	57.0	52.5
Total current liabilities	2,292.7	1,172.3
Long-term debt (Note 8)	241.9	185.3
Deferred taxes on income (Note 9)	—	121.3
Certificates of extra compensation (Note 14)	58.5	58.0
Deferred investment tax credits (Note 1)	30.3	40.2
Other liabilities	429.1	167.1
Stockholders' equity		
Preferred stock—without par value (authorized and unissued 2,000,000 shares)	—	—
Common stock—par value $1.00 per share (authorized 270,000,000 shares; issued 191,834,000 and 191,832,000 shares)	191.8	191.8
Additional capital	186.2	247.6
Cumulative currency translation adjustments (Note 10)	(171.9)	(291.9)
Retained earnings	3,584.4	3,499.6
	3,790.5	3,647.1
Less common stock held in treasury, at cost (18,984,000 and 8,980,000 shares)	966.3	296.2
Total stockholders' equity	2,824.2	3,350.9
Total liabilities and stockholders' equity	$5,876.7	5,095.1

1985 BRITISH PETROLEUM COMPANY BALANCE SHEET

ANNUAL ACCOUNTS

BALANCE SHEETS

£ million

At 31 December 1985	Note	Group 1985	Group 1984	Parent 1985	Parent 1984
Fixed assets					
Intangible assets – exploration expenditure	13	1,281	1,852	—	—
Tangible assets	14	15,604	17,803	—	—
Investments	15	1,351	1,583	1,702	1,813
		18,236	21,238	1,702	1,813
Current assets					
Stocks	16	4,163	5,097	—	—
Debtors	17	5,562	5,564	2,086	2,244
Investments	18	1,286	1,114	701	308
Cash at bank and in hand		919	1,201	2	1
		11,930	12,976	2,789	2,553
Creditors – amounts falling due within one year					
Finance debt	19	1,328	2,217	—	6
Other creditors	20	7,328	7,837	1,309	1,292
Net current assets		3,274	2,922	1,480	1,255
Total assets less current liabilities		21,510	24,160	3,182	3,068
Creditors – amounts falling due after more than one year					
Finance debt	19	3,802	4,841	27	27
Other creditors	20	2,859	2,467	13	13
Provisions for liabilities and charges					
Deferred taxation	8	408	469	—	—
Pension, insurance and other	21	1,157	475	—	—
Net assets		13,284	15,908	3,142	3,028
Minority shareholders' interest		3,376	4,365	—	—
BP shareholders' interest		9,908	11,543	3,142	3,028
Represented by:					
Capital and reserves					
Called up share capital	22	469	468	469	468
Share premium account	23	926	913	926	913
Reserves	24	8,513	10,162	1,747	1,647
		9,908	11,543	3,142	3,028

Module 1

Objective: to convey the notion that accounting is a social artifact that is influenced by its environment and to reinforce understanding of US investor orientation in financial accounting

Handouts: none

Assigned reading: Mueller, Gernon, and Meek: Chapter 1- "An International Perspective on Financial Accounting"

Assigned Exercises: p. 19, #3, #4 (discussion of variables and groups affecting accounting orientations)

This chapter discusses the ways in which accounting is shaped by its environment and the major variables involved in the process, e.g., the nature of the capital markets, governments, legal systems and so forth. It also briefly explains the historical cost principle. Alternative orientations are contrasted with that of the U.S, and the reasons for the U.S. orientation are discussed.

Element *4 - (30 minutes)

Objective: to extend discussion of the nature of auditing in the U.S.

Handouts: audit reports from the following firms: British Petroleum (1985), Sanyo (1985), Saab-Scania (1985), Saint-Gobain (1985) [two forms], BSN (1986), and Johnson & Johnson (1986)

British Petroleum (1985) provides a "true and fair view" report. Sanyo's 1985 audit report is quasi-U.S. and indicates where its financial statements do not comply with U.S. requirements . The Saab-Scania report is from the statutory auditors. The Saint-Gobain 1985 statements present two audit reports, one is statutory and the other indicates compliance with the standards of the International Accounting Standards Committee. The BSN report indicates where their statements do not comply with U.S. gaap. All reports are contrasted with each other and with Johnson & Johnson's standard U.S. "present fairly" report. Again, cultural variables that produce such different reports are discussed.

British Petroleum - 1985 - audit report

REPORT OF THE AUDITORS

To the Members of The British Petroleum Company p.l.c.

We have audited the accounts of The British Petroleum Company p.l.c. set out on pages 41 to 56. These have been prepared under the historical cost convention. Our audit has been carried out in accordance with approved auditing standards.

In our opinion the accounts give a true and fair view of the state of affairs of the company and of the group at 31 December 1985 and of the profit, changes in reserves and source and application of funds of the group for the year then ended and comply with the Companies Act 1985.

Ernst & Whinney
Chartered Accountants
London
20 February 1986

Sanyo - (Japan) - 1985 audit report

Report of Independent Public Accountants

To the Board of Directors
Sanyo Electric Co., Ltd.

We have examined the consolidated balance sheet of Sanyo Electric Co., Ltd. and Consolidated Subsidiaries as of November 30, 1985 and 1984, and the related consolidated statements of income, stockholders' equity and changes in financial position for each of the three years in the period ended November 30, 1985, all expressed in yen. Our examinations were made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards in the United States of America and, accordingly, included such tests of the accounting records and such other auditing procedures as we considered necessary in the circumstances.

The information relating to segments of a business enterprise required to be disclosed in financial statements by Statement of Financial Accounting Standards No. 14 under accounting principles generally accepted in the United States of America is not presented in the accompanying consolidated financial statements.

In our opinion, except for the omission of the information referred to in the preceding paragraph, the aforementioned consolidated financial statements, stated in yen, present fairly the consolidated financial position of Sanyo Electric Co., Ltd. and Consolidated Subsidiaries at November 30, 1985 and 1984, and the consolidated results of their operations and changes in their consolidated financial position for each of the three years in the period ended November 30, 1985, in conformity with accounting principles generally accepted in the United States of America applied on a consistent basis.

Coopers & Lybrand

Osaka, Japan
February 14, 1986

Saab-Scania (Swedish) - 1985 audit report

Auditors' Report

We have examined the Annual Report of the Board of Directors and President, the Consolidated Financial Statements, the Accounts and the Administration of the Board of Directors and President for the year 1985. Our examination has been made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards.

Parent Company

The Accounts have been prepared in conformity with the Swedish Companies Act.

We recommend:

that the Statement of Income and the Balance Sheet be approved,

that the earnings be disposed of as proposed in the Board of Directors' Report, and

that the Board of Directors and the President be discharged from liability for their administration of the Company during the year 1985.

Group

The Consolidated Financial Statements have been prepared in conformity with the Swedish Companies Act.

We recommend that the Consolidated Statement of Income and the Consolidated Balance Sheet be approved.

Linköping, March 19, 1986.

Bengt Gunnhagen Bo Lilliesröm-Tjus
Authorized Public Accountants

Saint-Gobain (French) - 1985 statutory audit report

STATUTORY AUDITORS GENERAL REPORT

To the Shareholders,

We were appointed as your statutory auditors at the Annual Meeting of June 10, 1982. We set out below our report on the Company's financial statements for the year ended December 31, 1985.

1. Opinion on the financial statements

We have examined the annual financial statements and made such tests and procedures as we considered necessary in accordance with standards recommended by our profession.

The balance sheet which is presented to you totals FF 15,971,821,287.85 and net income amounts to FF 208,233,813.11 compared with FF 84,309,341.50 for the previous year.

As in the previous year, the Company's trade investments are normally valued taking into account an average obtained from using the following two factors:
- revalued net assets;
- a yield valuation based on the capitalization of cash flows of the last three years.

As at December 31, 1984 this method has not been used to value the investment in Société Générale d'Entreprises, which is based on the average quoted price in December 1985, or the investment in Spafi, as it is a holding company, which is carried taking into account the value of its holdings less a general reduction for the lack of yield.

Refunds of income taxes in application of the consolidated tax regulations are recorded in income when received. The amount of FF 146 million received in 1985 relates to the 1983 tax declaration (1984 - FF 270 million relating to the 1982 tax declaration) and has been credited to the provision for deferred taxes.

Finally, the tax credit of FF 144 million arising from the carryback of part of the tax losses in 1984 has been recorded in exceptional income of the year.
In our opinion, based on our examination and taking into account comments described above, the financial statements set out on pages 32 to 45 give a true and fair view of the financial position of the company and the results of its operations for the year then ended.

2. Examination of specific information

We have no comments to make on the sincerity of the information contained in the report of the Board of Directors concerning operations for the year or on the other documents for the attention of shareholders at the Annual General Meeting.

In order to comply with the requirements of article 356 of the law of July 24, 1966 we inform you of the following:

a) Holdings acquired during the year:
The Company has increased its holding in Société Générale d'Entreprises to 32.48% and now holds, directly or indirectly, over 50% of the capital of this company.

b) List of shareholders holding over:
- 10% of the capital:
  Société Française de Participations Industrielles;
- 50% of the capital:
  French State.

Paris, May 20, 1986.

Statutory Auditors
Members of the Paris Statutory
Auditors' Association.

GONZAGUE LAURAS

BEFEC, MULQUIN
& ASSOCIES
represented by
R. Gonzalez P.-C. Mulquin

Saint-Gobain- (French) - 1985 -independent auditor's report

JOINT AUDITORS' REPORT

We have examined the consolidated balance sheets of Compagnie de Saint-Gobain and its subsidiaries as of December 31, 1985 and 1984 and the related consolidated statements of income and of changes in financial position for the years then ended. Our examinations were made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards and accordingly included such tests of the accounting records and such other auditing procedures as we considered necessary in the circumstances. We did not examine the consolidated financial statements of Compagnie Générale des Eaux, the investment in which is reflected in the accompanying financial statements using the equity method of accounting (see the note on accounting principles and policies and note 11). The Compagnie de Saint-Gobain's equity in earnings of Compagnie Générale des Eaux amounted to FF 110 million and FF 103 million for 1985 and 1984, and its investment in this company was FF 1,051 million and FF 990 million at December 31, 1985 and 1984 respectively. The consolidated financial statements of Compagnie Générale des Eaux were examined by its statutory auditors, whose report thereon has been furnished to us, and our opinion expressed herein, insofar as it relates to the amounts included for Compagnie Générale des Eaux, is based solely upon the report of its statutory auditors.

The consolidated financial statements have been prepared in accordance with international accounting principles formulated by the International Accounting Standards Committee. These principles have been applied on a consistent basis after taking into account the modifications, with which we concur, concerning the recognition of interest income of subsidiaries operating in highly inflationary countries in 1985 (see the note on accounting principles and policies and note 4) and the harmonization of the method of accounting for production molds in the Containers Division in 1984 (see note 13).

In our opinion, based on our examination and the remarks above, the consolidated financial statements set out on pages 3 to 22 present fairly the financial position of the Compagnie de Saint-Gobain and its subsidiaries at December 31, 1985 and 1984, the results of their operations and the changes in their financial position for the years then ended in accordance with accounting principles formulated by the International Accounting Standards Committee.

BEFEC, MULQUIN
& ASSOCIES
Paul-Carlos Mulquin
Ramon Gonzalez

GONZAGUE LAURAS

PRICE WATERHOUSE
LONDON

PETITEAU SCACCHI & ASSOCIES
MEMBERS OF PRICE WATERHOUSE
Michael Moralee

Paris, June 6, 1986.

BSN - (French) - 1986- audit report

STATUTORY AUDITORS AND INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNTANTS

In our opinion, the accompanying consolidated balance sheets and the related consolidated statements of income, of changes in financial position and stockholders' equity present a true and fair view of the financial position of BSN and its subsidiaries at December 31, 1985 and 1984 and the results of their operations and the changes in their financial position for the years then ended, in conformity with the accounting principles described in the notes, consistently applied. Our examinations of these statements were made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards and accordingly included such tests of the accounting records and such other auditing procedures as we considered necessary in the circumstances.

The members of Price Waterhouse confirm in addition that these accounting principles comply with those generally accepted in the United States of America.

Paris, March 28, 1986

Statutory auditors
H.-L. Charrier
C. Guérard

International Accountants
M. Chauveau
Blanchard Chauveau & Associés
Members of Price Waterhouse

Report of Independent Certified Public Accountants

To the Stockholders and Board of Directors of Johnson & Johnson:

We have examined the consolidated balance sheet of Johnson & Johnson and subsidiaries as of December 28, 1986 and December 29, 1985, and the related consolidated statements of earnings and retained earnings, common stock, additional capital and treasury stock, and cash flows for each of the three years in the period ended December 28, 1986. Our examinations were made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards and, accordingly, included such tests of the accounting records and such other auditing procedures as we considered necessary in the circumstances.

In our opinion, the financial statements referred to above present fairly the financial position of Johnson & Johnson and subsidiaries at December 28, 1986 and December 29, 1985, and the results of their operations and the changes in their financial position for each of the three years in the period ended December 28, 1986, in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles applied on a consistent basis.

New York, New York
February 11, 1987

Coopers & Lybrand

Module 2

Objective: to introduce and compare basic notions of current cost and price level adjusted accounting

Assigned reading: Mueller, Gernon and Meek- Chapter 5- "Comparative Recognition of Inflation and Other Price Changes"

Assigned exercises: pp. 41-42, "N.V. Cirts" #1 & 2 (converting a current cost Dutch convenience statement to U. S. principles)

The assigned chapter introduces students to the topic of changing prices and the effects on accounting measurements. It also provides them with an overview of general patterns of accounting for changing prices around the world. Despite the complexity of the topic, students are able to grasp the concepts and deal with elementary conversions from one basis to another. This skill is enhanced by the "N. V. Cirts" problem which the students prepare.

Module 3

Objective: introduce the basic notions of consolidations and foreign currency translation

Handouts: Footnote #10 from Johnson & Johnson 1986 report

Assigned reading: Mueller, Gernon, and Meek -Ch 6 "Multinational Consolidation of Financial Statements"

Assigned exercises: "Parent and Subsidiary" (p.97) (simple consolidation) and "Beaucoup SA" (pp. 98-100) (simple translation exercises under alternative assumptions)

Additional exercise: students are required to read and summarize the footnote related to foreign currency translation in a U. S. report (Johnson & Johnson, 1986, note 10)

The assigned chapter outlines elementary consolidation and translation techniques. Although the level of presentation is very simple, students are able to understand and work with the basic requirements of FASB Statement 52. The Johnson & Johnson exercise reinforces the material and persuades students that foreign currency translations are a fact of life for most large U.S. firms.

Foreign Currency Translation Footnote- Johnson & Johnson (1986)

Note 10.
Foreign Currency Translation

For translation of its international currencies, the Company has determined that the local currencies of its international subsidiaries are the functional currencies except those in highly inflationary economies which are defined as those which have compound cumulative rates of inflation of 100% or more during the past three years.

In consolidating international subsidiaries, balance sheet currency effects are recorded in a separate component of stockholders' equity. This equity account includes the results of translating all balance sheet assets and liabilities at current exchange rates except for those located in highly inflationary economies, principally Argentina, Brazil and Mexico, which are reflected in operating results. These translation adjustments do not exist in terms of functional cash flows; such adjustments are not reported as part of operating results since realization is remote unless the international businesses were sold or liquidated.

An analysis of the changes during 1986 and 1985 in the separate component of stockholders' equity for cumulative currency translation adjustments follows:

(Dollars in Millions)	1986	1985
Beginning of year	$(291.9)	(366.4)
Translation adjustments	120.0	74.5
End of year	$(171.9)	(291.9)

Net currency transaction and translation gains and losses included in net earnings were losses of $11.3, $28.3 and $23.7 million in 1986, 1985 and 1984, respectively, incurred principally in Latin America.

Module 4

Objective: make students aware of alternative disclosure possibilities and reinforce the nature of some U.S. requirements; reinforce format and content of U.S. income statements.

Handouts: none

Assigned reading: Mueller, Gernon, and Meek-Chapter 4-"Disclosure Practices Around the World"

Assigned exercises: "Bournemouth Ltd" (Convert valued added statement to traditional income statement), p. 71 and "Geographic Segment Disclosure" (provide arguments for geographic segment data), pp. 71-72.

This assigned reading provides basic information about geographic and product line disclosure requirements in the U.S. Additionally, it describes some of the nonfinancial disclosures typically found in non-U.S. reports (employee data, environmental discussions, and so forth). The "value added" statement that students prepare for "Bournemouth" produces good discussions of U.S. value systems and the role of business and the investor in the U.S.

Module 5

Objective: to reinforce understanding of the political nature of standard setting; to provide basic information with regard to the institutional structure of international standard setting

Assigned readings: Mueller, Gernon, and Meek -Ch 2 - "Financial Reporting in the International Environment" and Ch 3 -"Setting Accounting and Auditing Standards Internationally"

Assigned exercises: "A Conflict of Standards" - p. 54 - requires responses to questions regarding the complex reporting situation faced by multinationals

Additional reading and exercise": students are required to read and summarize Jules W. Muis's "The 'Glasnostic' Features of European Accounting" Newsletter of the European Accounting Association, September, 1987, pp. 33-49.

Chapter 2 provides information on the alternative ways in which companies respond to the demand for information from foreigners, e.g. convenience statements, convenience translations, limited restatement, and so forth. Chapter 3 describes the International Accounting Standards Committee, the International Federation of Accountants, activities at the United Nations and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, and various regional organizations. Students discuss the need for and difficulties of establishing international standards. The Muis article gives them a European view of the difficulties involved.

As can be seen from the course outline and the above-described elements and modules, student attention is drawn to international dimensions of accounting throughout the semester. The costs of such internationalization are relatively low. Students have approximately one hundred pages of reading in the supplementary text. The only other additional reading is the Muis article, which is seventeen pages. For the instructor, preparation requires obtaining suitable examples from foreign financial statements and having the overhead transparencies or photocopies made. Slightly more than six class hours are allocated to international topics. In every case, however, the international dimensions under discussion are used to clarify and reinforce student understanding of U.S. accounting. In addition, students become aware of alternative methods of accounting and the degree to which all accounting is molded by the culture which generates it.

INTERNATIONAL MARKETING: A TEACHING PROSPECTUS

by

Margaret A. Terzin, Instructor
Longwood College .

April 7, 1988

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF MARGARET A. TERZIN

Ms. Terzin has a Bachelor of Business Administration with a major in personnel management and a Masters in Business Administration with a concentration in marketing from Eastern New Mexico University. She is currently pursuing a Ph.D. in management at Virginia Commonwealth University in Richmond. Ms. Terzin has taught courses in sales and marketing for four years at Ferris State College in Big Rapids, Michigan. While at Ferris State College, she taught a compressed course in Health Services Marketing to allied health professionals for two consecutive summers and co-authored a paper with Cheryl Snyder on their research on part-time faculty at the college. She is currently teaching courses on international marketing, sales management, and marketing management at Longwood College in Farmville, Virginia. Ms. Terzin had ten years work experience in sales and marketing research before beginning her teaching career. She also advises businesses on marketing and management problems.

INTERNATIONAL MARKETING: A TEACHING PROSPECTUS

In this presentation I will outline three different course designs for a course in international marketing (or business). These course designs are based on the International Marketing course I teach at Longwood College in Farmville, Virginia. The three designs have been utilized as curriculum requirements in this course over the last two years.

Briefly, international marketing studies the marketing of products and services in other countries and develops promotional and distributional strategies based on cultural differences.

The first course design requires a team of 3-4 students to research a designated country according to specific guidelines to determine which American products would sell best in that country. This, of course, is not realistic because in the majority of cases a company wishes to sell in other countries the product(s) it is currently producing with as little modification as possible.

This research requires a written paper and an oral presentation. By requiring an oral presentation, the other students are exposed to the problems and challenges of selling American products in a global environment. The guidelines for the paper are given in Exhibit I. The five areas of investigation are (1) a country's economy, (2) culture, (3) political system, (4) distribution system, and (5) promotional system. The final section of the report, the Suggestion Section, gives students an opportunity to make product recommendations gives students an opportunity to make product recommendations based on their research. They must give meaningful rationale to support their decisions. (See Form A for the Written Report Evaluation form and Form B for the Presentation Evaluation form. These forms are given to each team early in the course so they will know the instructor's expectations.) A listing of the resources available on campus is included in the guidelines.

Exhibit II displays the Oral Presentation Requirements. Notice that all students are required to have equal representation during the presentation and that they must wear business attire and present themselves in a business-like manner.

The team members are also given rating sheets on which they evaluate the other team members. (See Form C.) A team grade is first given on the written report and then adjusted according to the peer evaluations to determine an individual's grade.

In addition to the team report (written and oral), each student is responsible for the lecture and textbook material for the four scheduled exams. The final exam includes questions about the team presentations. Extra credit is given at the discretion of the instructor. This usually involves awarding five extra points to be added to total points for attending a lecture given on an international topic outside the classroom. The course is supplemented with current event news items, guest speakers, videotapes, and films.

The second design requires each student to analyze the same eight cases from selected chapters in the text and to submit a typed, one-page report on each case. The students are requested to use appropriate terminology from the corresponding and previous chapters. The eight reports are worth between 10-20 points each and total 100 points. Each case is discussed in class and no papers will be accepted after that class period.

This design also requires four exams and is supplemented with guest speakers, videotapes, films, and current event items. Extra credit is also given to those students who attend events of international interest as announced beforehand by the instructor.

The third design requires each student to present a 10-minute talk about an assigned topic. Exhibit III is a list of forty terms and topics of international interest. The instructor can assign topics, students may sign up for specific topics, or they may randomly draw names for each topic. Exhibit IV lists the guidelines for the oral presentation on topics. Each student is required to submit a typed bibliography to the instructor before the presentation. The instructor writes notes on the bibliography for further reference. At the next session the instructor gives the student his/her grade and comments about the content and delivery of the presentation.

Four exams are given covering lectures, information from the text, and oral presentations. Extra credit is given for attendance at events of international relevance. The course is also supplemented by guest speakers, current news items, videos, and films.

A supplemental list of resources is available for students who are having difficulties finding information on their country or topic.

Some videos and films that I have found most enlightening are the following:

"The Garden of Eden in Decay" from the PBS "Africans" series which ran in the fall of 1987

"One Man's Multinational" about international shoe manufacturer Thomas Bata, available through audio-visual services at The Pennsylvania State University

"Doing Business In Japan: Negotiating a contract"
"Col. Sanders Comes to Japan"
"Smirnoff Story"
all available through American Marketing Association

"Adventures in China Trade" through Audio-Visual Center, Capitol Heights, Maryland

"Culture Barriers" through sociology department

And any other film or video on or about other countries

Exhibit I

BUAD 384: INTERNATIONAL MARKETING TERM PAPER REQUIREMENTS
DUE DATE: Wednesday, December 2

CONTENTS: Include the following information about your country in your team's written report.

I. ECONOMY (Ch. 3)
   population (most recent)
   growth outlook
   per capita income
   natural resources
   urban or rural?
   bribery common?
   trading partners
   major exported goods (by type)
   major imported goods (by type)
   monetary unit(s)
   unemployment rate
   balance of trade (dollar amount for surplus or deficit (against major importer if need be))
   current trade restrictions or bans

II. CULTURE (Ch. 4)
   language(s)
   religion(s)
   customs pertaining to marketing and/or promotion
   education
   diet

III. POLITICAL SYSTEM (Ch. 5)
   democratic, socialistic, capitalistic?
   how stable?
   current leader or party

IV. DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM (Ch.11)
   modes of transportation
   open or closed market?
   bartering?
   retailing structure (types of stores, open-air, etc.)
   agents
   grographic barriers to physical distribution

V. PROMOTION (Ch. 13)
   What types are available? How many?
      ex. radio, TV, newspaper, personal selling, trade fairs
   Is bribery used as a promotional tool?
   Is counter trading used?

VI. SUGGESTION SECTION
   What products does your team suggest would sell well in your country? Why?

VII. MECHANICS
   - Report will be typed, double-spaced
   - Minimum of 10 pages

Exhibit I (con't)

- Will include appropriate graphs, charts, statistical tables, etc.
- Will include footnotes (suggest using MLA or APA styles)
- Will include a bibliography
- Will have pages numbered
- A table of contents is not required

VIII. RESOURCES

LIBRARY	Area Series Handbook Country Studt Books Books listed by country's name Periodicals Political Handbook of the World (1986) Countries of the World and Their Leaders Yearbook (1987) The Europa Yearbook (1986) Encyclopedia of the Third World The Statesman's Yearbook 1987 World Almanac Export Marketing of Capital Goods to Socialist Countries Marketing to South Korea Export Marketing to the Arab World
INTERVIEWS	People who are from, have lived in or visited your country.

NOTE: Each team member will initially receive the same grade on the report, but the grade will be adjusted after the instructor reviews the peer evaluations. This report is worth a maximum of 100 points toward the student's final grade.

Exhibit II

ORAL PRESENTATION REQUIREMENTS

- Each team member will have equal participation in the presentation.
- Each team will have 15-20 minutes to present its findings.
- The presentation will include a brief analysis of its economy, culture, political system, distribution system, promotion, and suggestions on what products would sell well in the country and why. (Support your choices with sound data.)
- Use charts, handouts, transparencies, or the blackboard on which to list statistical data.
- List pertinent data on charts, etc.
- List products and rationale on charts, etc.
- Wear business attire and present yourself in a business-like manner.
- Provide a question and answer period at the conclusion.
- There will be two presentations a day. They are tentatively scheduled for November 16, 18, 20, 23, 30.
- This project is worth a total of 50 points toward the students' total points for the course.

Exhibit III

INTERNATIONAL MARKETING ORAL PRESENTATION TOPICS SCHEDULE

	TOPIC	DATE	NAME
1.	Ad Valorem Tariff (Tax)	08/29/87	
2.	Tariff Factory	09/02/87	
3.	World Bank	09/02/87	
4.	International Monetary Fund (IMF)	09/07/87	
5.	European Community	09/07/87	
6.	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development	09/07/87	
7.	Animism	09/18/87	
8.	Cartel	09/18/87	
9.	Objective Theory of Jurisdiction	09/18/87	
10.	GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade)	09/23/87	
11.	Law of the Sea Convention	09/23/87	
12.	Paris Union	09/23/87	
13.	International Standards Organization	09/28/87	
14.	Madrid Arrangement	09/28/87	
15.	Export Management Company	10/26/87	
16.	Webb - Pomerene Association	10/26/87	
17.	Export - Trading Company	10/26/87	
18.	Piggyback (see text to begin)	10/28/87	
19.	Franchising	10/28/87	
20.	Free Trade Zones	11/04/87	
21.	Coverage (in advertising)1	11/06/87	
22.	Cooperative Advertising	11/09/87	
23.	"DUMPING"	11/18/87	
24.	Foreign Credit Insurance Corporation	11/20/87	
25.	Switch Trading	11/20/87	
26.	Transfer Pricing	11/20/87	
27.	Inflation	11/23/87	
28.	Transportation in Angola	11/23/87	
29.	Inflation in Brazil	11/23/87	
30.	Political Situation in Chile	11/25/87	
31.	Communications in Costa Rica	11/25/87	
32.	Trade to Czechoslovakia	11/25/87	
33.	Women in Egypt	11/30/87	
34.	Aids in Haiti	11/30/87	
35.	Freedom of Speech in Honduras	11/30/87	
36.	South Korea Exports	12/02/87	
37.	Iraq Oil Trade	12/02/87	
38.	Mexican Indebtedness	12/02/87	
39.	Phillippino Government Stability	12/02/87	
40.	Mozambique Transportation	12/02/87	

Exhibit IV

Topic Presentation Guidelines

1. Thoroughly research your topic.
2. Utilize charts, transparencies, the board, etc.
3. Include a history of the topic and current news items.
4. Limit your talk to 10 minutes.
5. Submit a typed bibliography to the instructor.
6. This project is worth 50 points.

RESEARCH SOURCES
(at the Longwood Library)

On Reserve Under My Name (Terzin):
- Export Marketing of Capital Goods to Socialist Countries
- Multinational Enterprise
- Dictionary of Marketing and Advertising
- A Basic Guide to Exporting
- Export Marketing Manual
- 1987 World Almanac
- International Marketing Journal (from the U.K.)
- Marketing Week (from the U.K.)

Other Sources:
- Political Handbook of the World
- Countries of the World and Their Leaders Yearbook
- The Europa Yearbook
- Encyclopedia of the Third World
- The Statesman Yearbook
- Periodicals (use computers in basement)
- Area Series Handbooks
- Country Study Books

Team No. ______
Case ______

WRITTEN REPORT
EVALUATION
BUAD 384

Team
Names ______

ORGANIZATION OF INFORMATION (5)	COMMENTS:
NEATNESS (5)	
GRAMMAR AND SPELLING (10)	
ANALYSIS OF ECONOMY (15)	
ANALYSIS OF CULTURE (10)	
ANALYSIS OF POLITICAL SYSTEM (10)	
ANALYSIS OF DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM (10)	
ANALYSIS OF PROMOTION (10)	
RATIONALE OF PRODUCT RECOMMENDATIONS (15)	
FOOTNOTES (5)	
BIBLIOGRAPHY (5)	
TOTAL POINTS (100)	

Form A

Country ______________
Team No. ______________
Members ______________
____
____
____
____

PRESENTATION
EVALUATION
BUAD 384

Form B

Points Considered	Team Points	Comments
Economy (7)		
Culture (7)		
Political System (7)		
Distribution System (7)		
Promotion (7)		
Rationale (10)		
Effective use of Audio/Visual Aids (2)		
Participation by all Members (3)		
TOTAL POINTS (Maximum = 50)		

Form C

INDIVIDUAL RATINGS
OF PANEL MEMBERS

CASE______________________________ NAME__________________________

TRAITS CONSIDERED	PANEL MEMBER BEING RATED		
	(Name)		
	GOOD	AVERAGE	POOR
Leadership			
Original Ideas			
Cooperation			
Participation			
Preparation of Written Report (Research, typing, etc.)			
Contribution to Oral Presentation (A/V's, participation, etc.)			

COMMENTS:

INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNTING AND THE ACCOUNTING EDUCATOR

by

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INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNTING AND THE ACCOUNTING EDUCATOR

Stephen F. Laribee
Eastern Michigan University

ABSTRACT

This paper presents three topics: (1) the pressure on accounting departments to internationalize their accounting curriculum; (2) the international topics that should be included in the internationalization of the accounting curriculum; and (3) a discussion of three ways in which an accounting department can design and incorporate the international elements into their accounting curriculum.

INTRODUCTION

When I begin a principles of accounting class, I tell my students they will be learning two concepts: (1) accounting and (2) a new language. Accounting is the language of business. A language that is very important to their business education, regardless if they plan to major in accounting or not.

They will discover that accounting is an art, not a science. That accountants record the financial information of a business entity based upon their perception of the event. That perception will vary based upon the circumstance of the event and the environment in which they operate. As a result, the accounting process is continually changing.

The period since the late 1950's has seen a rapid growth in the number of U.S. enterprises operating in a multinational setting. The accounting process for these firms was responding to changes at the national and international level. The outcome is that the accounting process often appears to be failing to present a true picture of the financial operations of a multinational entity.

Our problem is that accounting is still the language of business, but that language is now international and our students do not know how to speak it.

PRESSURE TO INTERNATIONALIZE ACCOUNTING CURRICULUM

The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business

(AACSB) in 1974 forced colleges to include an international perspective in their curriculum in order to meet their accreditation standards. The AACSB does not specify how a College is to carry out this internationalization of their curriculum.

The American Accounting Association in 1978, also recommended that the accounting curriculum be internationalized. The Educational Committee of the International Section felt that this should be carried out by (1) introducing international accounting into the principles course, (2) offering an intermediate level course in international accounting as an elective, and (3) creating a graduate level major in international accounting or business.

Two approaches have appeared in meeting the above objectives. One approach has followed the AAA recommendation of offering a separate international course that may or may not be required of all majors. The other approach is to integrate the international topics into existing courses.

The AACSB has had the major influence in bringing about the internationalization of the accounting curriculum because of their accreditation standards. A study of AACSB accredited accounting programs showed the following (Sherman, 1987, p. 261).

Table 1 - How Do You Satisfy AACSB's Worldwide Dimension Requirement?

By International Accounting courses(s)	2.4%
By inclusion of international topics in:	
(1) Other Accounting Courses	85.6%
(2) Other Required Non-Accounting Courses	51.2%
(3) Other Elective Non-Accounting Courses	30.4%
Do not require international topics	4.0%

Sherman concluded that AACSB accredited accounting departments were not meeting the requirement by offering a separate international accounting course, but by incorporating international topics into traditional courses.

INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNTING TOPICS

If an accounting department were to internationalize their accounting curriculum, how would they go about determining the topics that should be covered? Fortunately we have many studies on which topics should be covered in international accounting.

Sherman ranked the importances of international topics from his study of AACSB accredited accounting programs. He then compared his ranking with the studies done by Agami, 1983; Mintz, 1980; Burns, 1979; Dascher, Smith, and Strawser, 1973. He found that the various studies had different rankings as to the importances of topics, but there is a positive correlation between the studies as to the relative importance of the topics.

The following is his ranking of the international topics in terms of importance between the various studies (Sherman, 1987, pp. 264-265).

****

Table 2 - Rankings of Topics in Terms of Importance
A Comparison of Research Findings

Topic	AACSB Survey	Agami ('83)	Burns ('79)	Mintz ('80)	Dascher('73) MNE	Dascher('73) Univ.
Foreign Currency Translation	1	1	2	2	1	1
Accounting for Inflation	2	5	4	4	11	2
Controlling Operations and Performance of Subsidiaries	3	6	14	11	8	12
Transfer Prices	4	11	3	7	6	7
International Accounting Standards	5	2	7	6	NR	NR
Consolidations	6	14	10	5	NR	NR
Comparative Standards and Harmonization of Accounting Standards	7	4	1	1	3	4
Auditing and Internationalization of the Profession	8	15	13	12	14	5*
Accounting Standards in North America	9	20	NR	NR	NR	NR

Table 2 - Continued

	AACSB	Agami	Burns	Mintz	Dascher('73)	
Topic	Survey	('83)	('79)	('80)	MNE	Univ.
Reporting and Disclosure Problems of MNEs	10	7	5	3	NR	NR
Taxation	11	3	11	14	2	8
Government Regulation	12	22	NR	NR	20	18*
EEC Accounting Standards Practices	13	8	NR	NR	15*	15*
Cost/Benefits of Disclosure	14	28	NR	NR	NR	NR
MIS for MNE	15	16	NR	NR	19	13*
Internal Auditing	16*	30	NR	NR	7	18*
Risk Management	16*	10	6	8	5	13*
Ethical Conduct of MNEs	18	18	NR	NR	NR	NR
Uniform Accounting System	19	24	NR	NR	NR	NR
Financing the MNE	20	9	NR	NR	9	15*
Accounting and Economic Planning	21	27	NR	NR	NR	NR
Managing MNE	22	26	NR	NR	15*	20
Accounting Standards in Pacific Rim	23	19	NR	NR	NR	NR
Hidden Reserves	24	29	NR	NR	NR	NR
Social Responsibility Accounting	25	13	15	16	NR	NR
Branch Accounting	26	25	NR	NR	NR	NR
Accounting in Developing Countries	27	12	NR	NR	15*	17
Accounting Standards in Central America	28	21	NR	NR	NR	NR

Table 2 - Continued

Topic	AACSB Survey	Agami ('83)	Burns ('79)	Mintz ('80)	Dascher('73) MNE	Univ.
Accounting in Socialist and Communist Countries	29	17	NR	NR	NR	NR
Company Laws	30	23	NR	NR	NR	NR
International Accounting History	NR	NR	9*	8	NR	NR
Patterns in Accounting Development	NR	NR	NR	NR	10	3
Non-Accounting Business Topics	NR	NR	9	10	NR	NR
Bases for Financial Reporting Authority	NR	NR	NR	NR	4	5*

*indicates a tie between or among topics.
NR indicates that the topic was not ranked by that study.
Dascher's rankings reported for the opinions of both Controllers of Multinational Enterprises (MNE) and Academics (University).

****

INTERNATIONALIZING THE ACCOUNTING CURRICULUM

The approach most accounting departments are following is to cover the international topic in their existing accounting courses. If we use the above list as the basic coverage in the international accounting field, where would these topic best be covered in the traditional accounting courses? Table 3 identifies which of the existing accounting courses could be expanded to cover the different international topics.

****

Table 3 - International Topics to be Covered in Traditional Accounting Course (P - primary course to cover the topic; S - secondary course to introduce or cover the topic)

Topic	Pri.	Mgt.	Int-med.	Adv. Fin.	Adv. Cost	Aud.	Tax
Foreign Currency Translation			S	P			

Table 3 - Continued

Topic	Pri.	Mgt.	Int-med.	Adv. Fin.	Adv. Cost	Aud.	Tax
Accounting for Inflation	S		P	S			
Controlling Operations and Performance of Subsidiaries		S		S	P		
Transfer Prices		S		S	P		
International Accounting Standards	S		S	P			
Consolidations				P			
Comparative Standards and Harmonization of Accounting Standards	S		P	P			
Auditing and Internationalization of the Profession						P	
Accounting Standards in North America	S		P	P		S	
Reporting and Disclosure Problems of MNEs				S		P	
Taxation							P
Government Regulation			P	P		S	
EEC Accounting Standards Practices	S			P			
Cost/Benefits of Disclosure		P	S			S	
MIS for MNE					P		
Internal Auditing						P	
Risk Management		S		S	P	S	
Ethical Conduct of MNEs		S				P	

Table 3 - Continued

Topic	Pri.	Mgt.	Int-med.	Adv. Fin.	Adv. Cost	Aud.	Tax
Uniform Accounting System			P	P			
Financing the MNE				P			
Accounting and Economic Planning	S	P			S		
Managing MNE					P		
Accounting Standards in Pacific Rim	S		S				
Hidden Reserves			P	S		S	
Social Responsibility Accounting				S			
Branch Accounting				P			
Accounting in Developing Countries				S			
Accounting Standards in Central America				S			
Accounting in Socialist and Communist Countries				S			
Company Laws			S	S		S	
International Accounting History			S	S			
Patterns in Accounting Development				S			
Non-Accounting Business Topics				S			
Bases for Financial Reporting Authority			S			P	

Key to Course Abbreviations in Table 3
Pri. - Principles of Accounting or Introduction to Accounting.
Mgt. - Management Accounting or Cost Accounting.
Intmed. - Intermediate Accounting.
Adv. Fin. - Advanced Financial Accounting.

Adv. Cost - Advanced Cost Accounting.
Aud. - Auditing.
Tax - Taxation.

****

The idea of internationalizing the accounting curriculum through traditional accounting courses has great appeal. Many of our domestic accounting problems are similar to those faced by foreign accountants. By integrating the domestic and international accounting topics the accounting students would learn that international accounting is not separate and distinct from ours.

An additional advantage is that the department does not have to create a new course and deal with the problems associated with getting it into the curriculum. They also will not have to recruit a new faculty member to teach it if they don't currently have a qualified person.

The textbooks we have available to use in our traditional accounting course do not have adequate coverage in the international topics. It will be dependent upon the department and its faculty to fit this new material into their courses. The faculty will have to put together appropriate materials for their individual courses. This material could be outside readings and/or coursepackets that are sold to the students as a supplementary to their text.

The department must determine if this additional material will overtax its students and overwork its faculty who both are facing accounting information overload in the traditional courses. The department must also determine if its existing faculty have a strong enough interest in international accounting to adequately educate themselves in the topics they will be required to integrate into their courses. If the department's faculty does not support this idea, having it as a requirement does not mean it will be uniformly carried out.

Sherman in his study found that 85.6% of the accounting departments were satisfying the AACSB's requirement by including the international topics in their other required accounting courses. He also found that a majority of the above international topics were not covered in any course. Table 4 lists the topics his study showed were being covered in the traditional accounting courses.

Table 4 - Undergraduate Coverage of International Topics
(X is the course in which the topic
is most frequently covered)

Topic	Pri.	Mgt.	Int-med.	Adv. Fin.	Adv. Cost	Aud.	Tax
Foreign Currency Translation				X			
Accounting for Inflation			X				
Controlling Operations and Performance of Subsidiaries					X		
Transfer Prices					X		
Consolidations				X			
Auditing and Internationalization of the Profession						X	
Accounting Standards in North America			X				
Taxation							X
Government Regulation				X			
Cost/Benefits of Disclosure		X					
Internal Auditing						X	
Branch Accounting				X			

INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNTING COURSE

The other approach to internationalizing the accounting curriculum is to create a separate course on international accounting.

Several question must be answered about this course. Will this course be offered to all interested students, students with international background, student with some accounting background, or only to accounting majors? Will this course be required of the accounting majors? What level will this course be offered at? If the department has graduate students, will the course be open to both undergraduates and graduate students? How often will this course be offered?

UPPER LEVEL INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNTING COURSE

The common approach is to develop a senior/graduate level course in international accounting. The students should have taken most of their accounting course before enrolling in this course. The instructor can then assume that they all have a background in accounting theory, auditing, cost and tax. This common background would be necessary for them to understand the international accounting issues that are associated with the different international business practices. They will also have been prepared for the advance level of accounting principles and practices that will be need for them to understand the theory and work the problems of most of the international accounting issues.

The advantage of this approach is that it may require only one qualified faculty member to teach it. The department would then have a longer time period to educate or sensitize its existing faculty to the international perspective and the ultimate goal of integrating the traditional courses. This course would be able to give the international topics the necessary indepth coverage that is needed for the students to investigate, discussion, and analyzes them.

The following is a proposed outline for a senior/graduate level course in international accounting.

Purpose of the Course

The purpose of this course is to introduce accounting students to the emerging field of international accounting. Special attention is devoted to examination of the environmental factors affecting accounting concepts and standards in an international setting; financial accounting issues such as external financial reporting for multinational firms and foreign currently translation and finally financial and managerial planning and control issues for a multinational firm.

Course Contents

The following are the key topics which will be covered in this course.

Conceptual Development
- Environmental Influences on Accounting
- Special Accounting Problems for Multinational Enterprises
- International Accounting Development, issues and

Future Directions
- Principles Generally Accepted in the United States vs. those Accepted Elsewhere

Comparative Practices
- Comparative International Accounting
- Accounting Policy Formulation in Different Countries - Financial Regulation of Corporate Financial Disclosure in Several Selected Countries (United State, United Kingdom, Brazil, France, German, Japan, Netherlands, Switzerland)

Foreign Currency Translation
- Currency Translation and Analysis
- Financial Accounting Standard No 8 and its impact on Financial Management Practices
- Financial Accounting Standard No. 52
- Evaluation of Statements No. 8 and No. 52

Accounting For Inflation
- Worldwide Inflation and Financial Reporting
- Foreign Inflation and Management Decision
- Application of Inflation Accounting in Selected Countries

Financial Reporting and Analyzing Foreign Financial Statements
- Gain and Loss from Foreign Exchange Rate Changes
- Consolidation Problem

Managerial Accounting Complexities in International Setting
- Transfer Pricing and Costing
- Control and Performance Evaluation in Multinationals

Auditing
- Internal Auditing
- External Auditing
- International Harmonization of Auditing Standards

INTERMEDIATE LEVEL INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNTING COURSE

The American Accounting Association's Educational Committee of the International Section recommended in 1978, that an intermediate level course in international accounting be offered as an elective. We are not aware of any accounting department which has followed this recommendation. In fact Sherman found that only 2.4% of the accounting departments were satisfying the AACSB's worldwide dimension requirement by offering an international accounting course (p. 261).

Why offer an international accounting course that is open to all interested students who have limited accounting background? All business students are required to take the principles of accounting course because it has been previously determined that our students education needs to include a knowledge of the language of business. As I have pointed out in the beginning of this paper, this language is international and our students do not understand it. This course will given them that necessary knowledge.

Purpose of the Course

The purpose of this course is to introduce students to the emerging field of international accounting. The prerequisite for this course is the Principles of Accounting course. This course is open to all students in the College of Business. It will count as an elective accounting course for the student who takes it.

Special attention is devoted to examination of the environmental factors affecting accounting concepts and standards in an international setting; financial accounting issues such as external financial reporting for multinational firms and foreign currency translation and finally financial and managerial planning and control issues for a multinational firm.

The following is a course outline for a intermediate level international accounting course. This course can be taken by any business major that has completed the principles of accounting course(s). It should be required of all accounting majors.

Course Contents

The following are the key topics which will be covered in this course.

An International Point of View on Financial Accounting
- International Development of Accounting Procedures
- International Development of Accounting Profession
- International Business and Accounting Standards

Conceptual Development
- Environmental Influences on Accounting
- Special Accounting Problems for Multinational Enterprises
- International Accounting Development, Issues and Future Directions
- Principles Generally Accepted in the United States vs. Those Accepted Elsewhere

Comparative Practices
- Comparative International Accounting
- Harmonization of International Accounting Systems and

Standards
- Accounting Policy Formulation in Different Countries
- British-American Model
- Continental Model
- South American Model
- Accounting in Communist Countries
- Financial Regulation of Corporate Financial Disclosure in Several Selected Countries

Foreign Currency Transactions, Translation, and Risk Management
- Foreign Exchange Markets
- Global Coordination of Foreign Exchange
- Foreign Currency Transactions
- Foreign Currency Translation
- Foreign Currency and Risk Management

Accounting For Inflation
- Worldwide Inflation and Financial Reporting
- Foreign Inflation and Management Decision
- Application of Inflation Accounting in Selected Countries

Financial Reporting and Analyzing Foreign Financial Statements
- Gain and Loss from Foreign Exchange Rate Changes
- Consolidation Problem
- Statement Format
- Cost and Benefits of Disclosure
- Foreign Investment Analysis

Managerial Accounting Complexities in International Setting
- Transfer Pricing and Costing
- Control and Performance Evaluation in Multinationals
- Financing of Multinational Enterprises
- Governmental Regulation

Auditing
- Internal Auditing
- External Auditing
- International Harmonization of Auditing Standards

International Taxation
- Tax System Theory
- U.S. Taxation of Multinational Enterprises
- Foreign Taxation of Multinational Enterprises

Management Information Systems for Multinational Enterprises
- Managing the Multinational Enterprise
- Accounting and Economic Planning
- Risk Management
- Social Responsibility Accounting
- Ethical Conduct (Foreign Corrupt Practices Act)
- Legal Environment

We see some potential problems in offering this course to students who have taken only the Principles of Accounting course. First, these students will traditionally have little, if any, background in the business practices of a multinational firm. Depending on how the course is taught, this background may be necessary for them to understand the international accounting issues that are associated with these practices. Second, the Principles course does not prepare them for the advance level of accounting principles and practices that may be needed for them to understand the theory and work the problems of some of the international accounting issues. Third, international accounting texts seem to be written for the senior/graduate level accounting student. If we were to use one of these texts as a basis for the course, the students may have trouble understanding it.

CONCLUSION

The internationalization of our accounting curriculum is being forced on the accounting educator. The question is not if we should do it, but how we will do it.

Sherman's study of AACSB's accredited accounting departments show that most of them are doing it by inclusion of the international topics in existing accounting courses, other required non-accounting courses, or other elective non-accounting courses. It is my opinion that the accounting departments are playing lip service to the international accounting problem. When asked if they are meeting this challenge, they have a easy answer, we are doing it through our traditional accounting courses and/or through other non-accounting courses. Close examination of the topics they are covering shows that few of the international topics covered in this paper are being intergrated into the existing courses.

Feedback I have received from my faculty has told me that they are not supportive of covering the international accounting topics in their traditional accounting courses. They feel that they are overworked now in trying to keep current with the domestic accounting information. We should fully realize that if our accounting faculty do not support this idea, having it as a requirement does not mean it will be uniformly carried out.

The knowledge of international accounting is not a subject that should only be given to our accounting majors. The principles of accounting is a core requirement for the business major because it is clearly recognized that all business students need to know the language of business. This language has become internationalized and it is equally important that all business students have an understanding of it.

I believe that by offering an intermediate level international accounting course, we would not only be giving our majors needed information, but we would also be offering a very useful course to the business student. Our goal is to educate all business students about accounting and the language of business.

This intermediate level international accounting course will familiarize our students with international accounting. Our ultimate goal is to sensitize and educate our existing faculty into integrating the international accounting topics into their traditional courses. The international accounting course would be used as the base course for our students knowledge of this topic.

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TRANSNATIONAL FINANCIAL REPORTING

Chandra P.Pathak, Associate Professor of Accounting,
Eastern Michigan University

TRANSNATIONAL FINANCIAL REPORTING

This paper examines the nature of transnational financial reporting problems and discusses the foreign reporting entities' response to such problems. The paper also looks at the progress made to harmonize the international accounting standards of reporting.

The financial reporting practices are the product of the interaction of a country's economic, political, and legal environment. Since such environment differs from country to country we have differences in accounting practices across the world. The differences in international financial reporting practices pose serious problem for international investing and financing activities which are expanding. Increasingly, Corporations going across the international borders seeking for funds at lowest cost: and more and more investors are finding that by investing in foreign securities (and thus using international diversification) they can increase their returns as well as reduce investment risk. This emerging trend of global financing strategy by corporations and international diversification by investors created the problem of transnational financial reporting -- financial reporting about domestic corporations to satisfy the needs of international audience-of-interest in general, and of international investors in specific.

In order to take advantage of both higher return and to reduce portfolio risks, investors in foreign securities require timely availability of relevant and reliable corporate financial data in a manner they can understand and analyze. Investors and security analysts face some unique problems associated with transnational reporting. Mueller and Walker state the nature of the problems:

> The problem unique to transnational financial reporting, as opposed to financial reporting within the country, is that those interested in the financial reports "read" these reports with eyes and minds accustomed to reading reports which are apparently similar but which are in fact different in their foundations owing to different customs, different cultural heritages, different "accounting principles" and different legal requirements. It is not just that the reports crossing national lines need to be stated in different languages and different currencies to be meaningful but, rather, that they must be "translated" in such a way that the underlying events and their consequences will be communicated to audiences whose experiences and education in financial reporting differ from those of the reporters. In other words, the problem is to convey to a "foreign" reader the same message as would be received by a native reader.[Mueller and Walker,1976 p.67].

The next section details some of the unique problems to which Mueller and Walker alluded.

Financial Information Accessibility

Financial data about domestic corporations is more available than that about foreign corporation. In contrast, the accessibility to information about foreign corporations is limited and difficult. However, this problem is not a serious one and would ease in the future as investors' interest in foreign securities increases. Already many brokerage firms around the world have already increased the international supply of corporate data for the benefit of international investors.

Timeliness of Information

The delay in the availability of corporate financial statement data is another problem foreign security investors face. For example, in the U.S., investors and financial analysts may find it takes upto 90 days to gain access to a domestic public corporation's annual financial data. This time table for some countries, for example, Italy and Austria, is over 120 days.

Foreign Language and Terminology Obstacles

The financial statements of foreign companies are naturally expressed in their native languages. To foreign security analysts and investors this language barrier is more one of appearance than of substance. No doubt, the familiarity with foreign languages may be very helpful to analysts. A survey of about 600 industrial firms outside the U.S. indicates that language is not as serious a problem in understanding foreign financial statements than it normally is thought to be.[Choi and Mueller, 1984 p. 301]. In fact, the majority of the cases examined, the entire annual reports were translated into English. The accounting terminology differences may also confuse foreign audiences. For example, the term "stock" in the U.S. is associated with security, whereas in the U.K. it means inventory.

The problem of accounting terminology differences can be overcome by developing accounting lexicons. In fact, such lexicons are available in abundance in many languages to facilitate the comprehension of foreign accounting language and terminology.

Foreign Currency Translation

The majority of foreign companies quantify their accounting numbers in their own domestic currencies which may appear to confuse the foreign audiences who are accustomed to see these figures in their own native currencies. Many accountants believe that accounting figures expressed in foreign currency do not pose a serious problem for most financial analysis because it is the ratios of the accounting numbers which are more relevant for analysis than the monetary values. Analysis of foreign financial statements can be done using only the accounting figures expressed in foreign currency. Difficulty in ratio analysis arises only when the foreign currency financial statements are adjusted by the general purchasing power changes.

Disclosure Disparity

The level of financial disclosures required and expected in the U.S., the U.K. and the Netherlands are seldom found in other countries.[see Barret,1977 pp 1-25]. For example, Austrian income statements begin with net operating income with no dis-closure of sales or cost of goods sold. The statement of changes in financial position detailing the major investing and financing activities of an entity is not required even in the industrialized countries like Japan, Denmark, Germany, and Switzerland.[see Fitzerald, Stickler & Watts,1977]. The disparity and inadequacy of foreign financial statement disclosures is a serious problem faced by investors and security analysts in evaluating different foreign securities. Two forces, one at the market level and the other at the institutional level, are at work to help mitigate the problem of inadequate disclosure in foreign financial statements. They are discussed later in the paper.

Disparity in Accounting Principles

A major problem facing financial analysts and investors is how to understand the underlying economic reality differences of the foreign reporting entities when the accounting signals are measured and communicated using different principles and concepts. Lack of uniformity in the applied accounting principles makes the comparative study and analysis of foreign financial statements an extremely difficult and challenging task.

Differences in National Environmental Characteristics

The proper interpretation of foreign financial statements requires not only the working knowledge of major differences in accounting principles between investee and investor countries but also the understanding of financial and business mores underlying the reported accounting figures in the investee country to assure proper interpretation of ratios within the environmental context.

For example, the interpretational standards of risk, efficiency, and profitability based on ratio analysis in the U.S. would be inappropriate in evaluating a Japanese-based firm because of the difference in business environments of the two countries.[Choi 82 p.43].

CORPORATE RESPONSE TO TRANSNATIONAL REPORTING

At present, we have no enforceable or generally accepted norms or standards of transnational financial reporting designed to satisfy the needs of foreign investors. Some multinational corporations under market pressure are currently responding to the needs of foreign investors. However, such corporate response was found to be inadequate to investors' needs. The corporate response essentially has taken one or more of the following forms.

Indifference to Foreign Investors and Readers. The majority of companies domiciled in the U.S. and France prepare and publish their financial statements based on their domestic Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP) expressed in their own native language and currency. This approach assumes that it is the responsibility of the foreign readers to be aware of the differences in accounting practices. The lack of sensitivity towards foreign readers on the part of U.S. domiciled corporation is based on the belief that U.S. GAAP is superior to foreign GAAP and

English is the international language of business communication.

Convenient Translations. Convenient translation is modest concession to transnational readers of financial reporting. Under this approach, financial statements are based on native GAAP and domestic currency. Only the text of the financial reports is translated into a foreign language. Some companies do translate the text portion of their financial statements into major languages. For example, many Dutch, German, Swedish and Swiss multinational corporations have six foreign language editions of their financial reports--Dutch, English, French, German and Spanish.

Many companies go a little further in convenient translation. In addition to translation of text material, they also translate the accounting figures in to the monetary units of foreign readers by usually applying the year-end exchange rates. Although convenient translations (either language and/or currency) are helpful to foreign audience and improve public relations, they may also mislead. Such language and/or currency translations may be wrongly viewed as containing the translation of accounting principles as well, and thus may lead to erroneous financial statement analysis.

Disclosure of Accounting Standards and Principles. A small number of multinational companies have made an effort to explain to readers in foreign countries the particular accounting standards and principles underlying the basis for their financial statements. For example, the multinational corporations domiciled in Sweden mail to non-Swedish addressees a booklet entitled Key to Understanding Swedish Financial Statements with each copy of their financial statements.

Partial Restatement. Some multinational corporations located in Netherlands, estimate their earnings based on the accounting principles that U.S. firms follow. However, the entire Dutch financial statements are not restated using U.S. GAAP, the availability of only part no help to U.S. investors in computing the rate-of-return for comparative analysis because the measurement of assets is based on Dutch GAAP.

Primary-Secondary Statements. Under the primary-secondary statements approach, two sets of financial statements are prepared. One set, called primary financial statements, are prepared for local audiences using local GAAP, language and currency. The other set, called secondary financial statements is prepared for the foreign audiences and is based on foreign GAAP, language and currency. This dual reporting approach is used by such Japanese multinationals as Hitachi and Honda for their U.S. audiences. The major advantages of dual international reports include, (a) the recognition by the reporting entity that the international viewpoint is as important as the national viewpoint,and (b) the improvement in quality and quantity of international financial data disclosure. The major drawbacks of this system of reporting include: (a) Costs for reporting may be greater, (b) some corporate management decisions may have to be changed because they may have adversely affect the secondary financial statements, (c) such a system may confuse readers because the translation of financial statements from domestic GAAP to foreign GAAP may distort the original message of financial statements.[Choi and Mueller,1984, pp 264-265].

The above discussion demonstrates the fact that both users and suppliers of transnational financial data face unique problems and have a strong need to improve international reporting practices which are presently both inadequate and diverse. Lack of uniformity in reporting practices results in noncomparability of global financial data creating distortion in the efficient working of the international capital market. Simple translation of financial statements into the currency and language of foreign users is no solution of the transnational reporting problem. Translation of financial statements using the GAAP of the user's country is useful but still considered inadequate. Uniformity in national accounting standards across the globe may perhaps do the job, but such uniformity is not possible because of the differences in socio-political-economic environments in different countries. As an alternative, what is suggested is standardization or harmonization of transnational reporting standards with the flexibility of allowing different countries to maintain their own domestic accounting standards. The major objective of harmonization of international reporting is to eliminate the "unnecessary" and "undesirable" differences in the transnational reporting so that the financial data may be more comparable across the nations.

Several international organizations, both in the public and private sector, are involved in promoting standardization of international standards. In the public sector, the contributions of the United Nations, the European Economic Community(EEC) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development have been noteworthy. However, with the exception of EEC, these organizations have no political muscle to impose international standards on the international reporting entities. In the private sector, the International Accounting Standards Committee(IASC) played a leading role in developing and propagating international standards. Since its inception in 1973, IASC has issued many international accounting standards covering a variety of accounting issues.

The acceptance of international standards is primarily voluntary. The degree of acceptance by international reporting entities depends upon the degree of divergence between national and international standards, and the degree of international financial market pressure on the entities. Where both the wide divergence in the national and international accounting standards and the significant international capital market pressure prevail, the reporting multinationals usually choose the dual reporting of financial statements, one consistent with the domestic accounting standards and the other with international standards.

Studies have shown that international standards are more accepted by medium and large multinational enterprises than small multinational firms. The large multinational firms are the primary targets of international accounting standards. Once the international standards have been firmly accepted by the big multinational enterprises, the task of convincing smaller multinationals and other firms with international audience-of-interest for their financial statements will likely be easier.

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DEVELOPING AN OVERSEAS PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

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DEVELOPING AN OVERSEAS PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

PRESENTATION LENGTH (15 - 20 MINUTES)

AUDIENCE - ACCOUNTING EDUCATORS AND/OR PROFESSIONALS

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the development, structure, and results of a professional education program in accounting in Indonesia. The primary purpose of the program was to aid in the professional development of a select group of oil and gas accountants employed by several international energy companies and agencies of the Indonesian government. This purpose was accomplished through an intensive four-month accounting program.

The demand for the program was initiated through discussions between several international energy companies and the Indonesian government agencies with which they worked. Each of these organizations recognized high potential employees, who needed additional technical expertise, to reach their full potential. Thus, three general objectives of the professional education program were developed:

1. Provide the necessary training to prepare professional accountants
2. Develop the necessary skills for financial control and reporting duties
3. Develop the skills used in the specialized area of oil and gas accounting.

The program contained material equivalent to four college accounting courses with emphasis on matters pertaining to oil and gas accounting. Specific aspects of the accounting program are discussed in this paper including: (1) preliminary language training, (2) faculty, (3) participants, (4) material, (5) examinations, (6) structure of class sessions, and (7) difficulties encountered and how these difficulties were managed.

The paper concludes with an evaluation of the program and its benefits. The program provided substantial benefits to the participants, sponsoring companies and agencies, faculty, and the relationship between Indonesia and the United States.

IV. TEACHING CROSS-CULTURAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

DESIGNING AND DELIVERING CROSS-CULTURAL INSTRUCTION

by

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DESIGNING AND DELIVERING CROSS-CULTURAL INSTRUCTION

Miriam Ben-Yoseph, Ph.D.

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The concept of cross-cultural instruction has great popular appeal, as manifest in the large number of books, articles and conferences dealing with one aspect or another of the subject.

The interest is certainly understandable given the increasing importance of international business activity and the realization that effective competition in a global marketplace depends on the competence of the people involved. In this context, competence must be defined in terms of both work related skills and cultural sensitivity. In fact, research findings indicate that failure overseas rarely results from technical or professional incompetence; it is ignorance of other cultures and inability to adapt to different ways of life that causes failure.

Inspired by this flurry of interest in global literacy and guided by my own experiences as a working woman in various countries and in different fields (higher education, business, government), I designed and subsequently taught a course titled "Managing in a Cross-Cultural Environment" at Northwestern University College.

The purpose of this paper is to share with you some of the insights I gained from teaching this course. The handouts include materials used in this class: student information forms, syllabus, bibliography, samples of case studies and critical incidents, and feedback forms.

I designed the Student Information Form primarily to be able to contact my students for any last minute changes. However, the information provided was helpful in other ways as well. It made me aware from the very beginning of the heterogeneous background of the students and their reasons for taking the course.

While most of the students were undergraduate business majors, several had graduate degrees. Most were working during the day, some for multinational companies, others were teaching at both private and public schools. One of the students was employed by the City of Chicago and was working with minorities, another student, a vietnamese refugee with several master degrees and a Ph.D., was head of a non profit organization that provides social services and training to vietnamese refugees.

Given the diversity of the students' background , it was not surprising that their reasons for taking the course were just as varied. While some of the younger undergraduates indicated that they took the course because it was a requirement for their major, most students wrote that for one reason or another they were curious about other cultures and eager to improve their understanding of people from different countries.

As indicated in the Syllabus, the course was designed tc address dilemmas and opportunities that individuals may encounter as they work or study in multicultural or international environments. (An outline of the course can be found on page 3 of the Syllabus).

After a relatively long search for the "perfect" textbook, I settled for Nancy Adler's International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior. This book provided an excellent theoretical framework for most of the topics covered in class. (Nancy Adler's other publications as well as her workshops at last year's SIETAR conference have been extremely helpful in designing this course). However, over-reliance on discussions and presentations based exclusively on the textbook would not have allowed us to take advantage of each student's personal knowledge and experience for the benefit of the class as a whole. Consequently, the book was supplemented with additional readings, guest lectures, and a variety of class activities including: case studies, critical incidents, games, and films.

The time allotted for my presentation does not permit me to describe the merits of theses activities in detail. However, I will take a few moments to give you some examples. The exercises I will mention are not new but if you do not recognize them, please see the handouts for references.

Critical incidents provided an easy way of generating discussion because they describe simple and believable situations that could occur to anyone in a cross-cultural context, no matter the group one belongs to. They gave students an opportunity to tackle a certain problem before facing it in a real life situation. Copies of the incidents were distributed to the class and students were asked to explain each incident by selecting the answer from four alternative explanations.

In addition to critical incidents, studying the experience of others can be done through the medium of fiction by authors from a variety of cultures. Since my course lasted only six weeks, I could not expect my students to read the works of Balzac or James, for example, although it is difficult to find a better source than Balzac to gain insights into the french mentality or to provide a more vivid and effective description of anglo-american relations than through the fiction of James. Given the time limitation, we read short stories written by Albert Camus, Joseph Conrad, Arthur Schnitzler, Herman Hesse and others. For this purpose, I used an excellent anthology, On Being Foreign: Culture Shock in Short Fiction. In their introduction, the editors, Lewis and Jungman describe the various stages of cultural adjustment and then let several short stories "speak" for each stage. These additional readings helped students learn from the experience of others just as they did from the critical incidents but the discussion that these short stories prompted were more interesting and thought provoking.

One of the most enjoyable exercises focused on exploring cultural assumptions and values by examining proverbs. Students were asked to list proverbs from their own culture and indicate the value conveyed by them. We then discussed what the proverbs pointed out about a particular culture, which no longer applied to mainstream society, and why some proverbs are culture specific and others are more universal.

An exercise that stimulated heated discussion required students to agree or disagree with a list of statements on marital roles according to the culture they were brought up in. Given the nature of some of these statements ("Husbands should be more strict with their wives"; "Marriage is the best career for the woman"), the exercise turned into a battle of the sexes regardless of the cultural background of the participants.

While the exercises were done throughout the duration of the course, films and guest speakers were brought in only towards the end of the course. I assumed or hoped that students would be able to comment more extensively on the films and have a better appreciation for the experiences of the guest speakers, having taken the course.

As the course progressed these activities seemed to help students *experience* various aspects of cultural differences, respond to them, and begin integrating them in their own ways of thinking and behaving.

Since cross-cultural management is a relatively new field, on many issues there is very little research available, on others no research at all; therefore, it would have been counterproductive to base grading on formal testing. Examinations could have created an impression of tertainty in what still is a very ambiguous field. On the other hand, emphasizing class participation was beneficial not only for student evaluation but for other purposes as well. Practically everybody in the class has had some sort of cross-cultural experience with people of another country, ethnic group, religion, or social class. Sharing these experiences with each other enabled students to understand the relevance of cross-cultural instruction to their own lives. The case studies, critical incidents, films, and the presentations given by guest speakers with extensive international experience in various parts of the world supplemented the students' own experiences and provided additional opportunities for discussion. Finally, the students' presentations to the class which required gathering of information of particular interest to the student, enhanced the sense of shared responsibility for the learning process not only among students but also between students and teacher. Topics selected by students for their final class presentations included: About Vietnam and Vietnamese Culture; Cross-Cultural Negotiations; The Western Expatriate Spouse in Arab Society; Culture Shock in the U.S.; The Impact of Culture on Advertising; Doing Business in Denmark. Several students arranged interviews with people knowledgeable in their area of interest and some students even managed to bring these "experts" to class to allow their peers to ask their own questions.

The Feedback Form was designed to evaluate the effectiveness of the course. In retrospect I realized that this form was too generic for the kind of feedback I was looking for. Instead of just rating the broad teaching methods (my lectures, guest lectures, exercises), I should have asked questions about specific topics I lectured on (Culture, Communication, Women in International Business), specific guest speakers (here I should have mentioned their names and presentations) and specific exercises (case studies, games, critical incidents). By being more specific, I would have been in a better position to prepare for subsequent courses.

In any case, most students indicated that the class met their expectations, noting a better understanding of people of different cultures, a greater sensitivity to people in general, and a desire to work or study in a foreign country. Two students objected to the emphasis placed on class participation. They felt that the class was biased in favor of those who are more articulate and less shy in group situations. Three others wrote that time was too short for a course of this nature and suggested that I teach it during a full semester and not during a six week summer session.

While I disagree with the comments on class participation for reasons mentioned above, I certainly agree that cross-cultural instruction must be delivered over an extended period of time. From my personal point of view, however, time is measured in years and not in weeks. There are no quick-fix solutions to global illiteracy; cross-cultural instruction must be seen as a long term proposition.

STUDENT INFORMATION

NAME ____

HOME ADDRESS ____________________________________

HOME PHONE NO ___________________________________

GRADUATE/UNDERGRADUATE __________________________

PRESENT EMPLOYER, POSITION, RESPONSIBILITIES (IF APPLICABLE)

____

____

WORK PHONE NO ___________________________________

WHY DID YOU TAKE THIS COURSE? ___________________

____

____

____

____

MANAGING IN A CROSS-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

MIRIAM BEN-YOSEPH, Ph.D.

Brief Course Description

This course will address dilemmas and opportunities that individuals may encounter as they work or study in multicultural and international environments.

Purpose of Course

The course is designed to provide students with an understanding of the issues involved in managing one's life and career while moving across international borders.

The purpose of this course is to increase the effectiveness of individuals in identifying, understanding and managing cultural differences.

Text and Readings

Adler J. Nancy. International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior. Boston: Kent Publishings, 1986. Other required readings will be handed out in class.

Course Structure

The variety of methods used in the course include lectures, readings, case studies, videotapes, critical incidents, and indepth discussions. Guest speakers will be invited to talk about their international experiences.

Grade Distribution

Activity	Due	Percent
Class Participation	Ongoing	50
Short presentation	6th Session	10
Final Presentation or Written Report	Last 3 sessions	40

Notes:

1. Class participation involves attendance and contribution to class activities and discussions. This recognizes preparation for each session.

2. The short class presentation (10 minutes) is a description of the student's proposed project. It should include a brief outline of the selected topic, methodology, and sources of information the student plans to use to complete the project. Potential topics will be suggested during the first session.

3. The final presentation to the class on the completed project will occur during the last three sessions of the course. Students are encouraged to be creative by inviting outside speakers and by using visual aids such as handouts, transparencies, flipcharts, videotapes and slides. Students must stay within presentation time limits (40 minutes) including questions and answers.

4. Under certain circumstances, the final class presentation may be replaced by a written report. The paper must be double-spaced and typewritten.

Phone Number and Availability to Students

Phone number is 475-2756.

If I cannot talk to you when you call, please leave a phone number where I can reach you during the evening hours.

About the Instructor

Miriam Ben-Yoseph is a Product Manager for International Services at Continental Bank. Originally from Rumania, she obtained her education in Israel and the United States. She has taught at Hebrew University in Jerusalem and at Northwestern University.

Course Outline

The following topics will be discussed:

1. Why International?

2. Why are Americans Considered "Innocents" Abroad?

3. The Meaning of Culture

    - Culture Defined
    - Cultural Orientations
    - Cultural Diversity

4. Comparing and Contrasting Cultures

    - Individual
    - World
    - Human Relations
    - Activity
    - Time
    - Space

5. Culture Shock

    - Definition
    - Symptoms
    - Stages
    - How to Combat Culture Shock

6. Cross-Cultural Communication

    - Issues in Cross-Cultural Communication

        - Misperception
        - Misinterpretation
        - Misevaluation

    - Effective Cross-Cultural Communication

7. Language

    - What is Language?
    - Language and Culture
    - Language and International Business

8. Non-Verbal Communication
    - Characteristics Across Cultures
    - Critical Dimensions

9. The Impact of Culture on Work Behaviour
    - Hofstede's Four Dimension Model
    - Strategies for Managing Cultural Diversity
    - Cross-Cultural Leadership, Motivation and Decision Making

10. Skills Necessary for Overseas Success

11. Women in International Business
    - Expatriate Managers
    - Espatriate Wives

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days later, as they were going over some details, the young chairman's grandfather happened to drop in. He began to comment on how the company had been formed and had been built up by the traditional practices, talking about some of the policies that the young executives had recently discarded. Phil expected the new chairman to explain some of the new innovative and developmental policies they had both agreed upon. However, the young man said nothing; instead, he just nodded and agreed with his grandfather. Phil was bewildered and frustrated over the days of work he had put into the development of those strategies, and he started to protest. The atmosphere in the room became immediately tense, but no one offered any further argument. A week later the Japanese company withdrew from the negotiations concerning a relationship with Phil's company.

Phil was understandably distraught. How would you help him sort out what happened?

(1) The Japanese are very unpredictable and one can never tell, no matter how well things seem to be going, what the outcome will be.
(2) The chairman was just too young to really understand about how businesses should be run.
(3) The Japanese have a respect for elders and that takes preference over knowledge of the subject.
(4) The young chairman was intimidated by his grandfather and was coerced to withdraw.

The discussions of these alternative explanations begin on page 175.

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A MANAGER'S DILEMMA

Ned Schwartz, the manager of a large factory operation in Canada, had been transferred to an operation of the same size in a Central American branch, as its production had always been low. Ned had a reputation of getting things done, but from the start Ned had a hard time. Government regulations made procuring needed materials difficult. Communication from his site to headquarters was slow and often garbled. Even Ned's personal work habits had to be changed. He was used to working late and inspecting the plant after most of the workers had gone home, but strict military rule imposed curfew hours over such installations as Ned's. In his own country there were organizations to protest such unreasonable restrictions, but superiors here said there was nothing one could do. Ned became increasingly depressed and ineffective. He finally asked to be sent back to his original operation.

From: Intercultural Interactions

What can help explain Ned's situation?

(1) The job was not really appropriate for Ned since the difficulties were too great.
(2) Ned found himself in a situation where he had relatively little control over matters.
(3) Operations in Third World countries are impossible to bring to maximization given the resources available.
(4) Ned did not have the proper local support. If he had been nicer to local authorities and workers, they would have offered him more cooperation.

The discussions of these alternative explanations begin on page 176.

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WHO'S IN CHARGE?

The president of Janice Tani's firm asked her, as chief executive of the marketing division, and her staff (three male MBAs) to set up and close an important contract with a Japanese firm. He thought his choice especially good as Janice (a Japanese American from California) knew the industry well and could also speak Japanese.

As she and her staff were being introduced, Janice noticed a quizzical look on Mr. Yamamoto's face and heard him repeat "chief executive" to his assistant in an unsure manner. After Janice had presented the merits of the strategy in Japanese, referring to notes provided by her staff, she asked Mr. Yamamoto what he thought. He responded by saying that he needed to discuss some things further with the head of her department. Janice explained that was why she was there. Smiling, Mr. Yamamoto replied that

that he was a step nearer the Bowery slum. And when they came to the gate Bryden said:

"I must walk on or I shall miss the train."

"But," she said, "you are not going now—you are not going today?"

"Yes," he said, "I am coming back."

"If you are coming back, James, why don't you let me go with you?"

"You couldn't walk fast enough. We should miss the train."

"One moment, James. Don't make me suffer; tell me the truth. You are not coming back. Your clothes—where shall I send them?"

He hurried away, hoping he would come back. He tried to think that he liked the country he was leaving, that it would be better to have a farmhouse and live there with Margaret Dirken than to serve drinks behind a counter in the Bowery. He did not think he was telling her a lie when he said he was coming back. Her offer to forward his clothes touched his heart, and at the end of the road he stood and asked himself if he should go back to her. He would miss the train if he waited another minute, and he ran on. And he would have missed the train if he had not met a car. Once he was on the car he felt himself safe—the country was already behind him. The train and the boat at Cork were mere formulae; he was already in America.

And when the tall skyscraper stuck up beyond the harbor he felt the thrill of home that he had not found in his native village and wondered how it was that the smell of the bar seemed more natural than the smell of fields, and the roar of crowds more welcome than the silence of the lake's edge. He entered into negotiations for the purchase of the barroom. He took a wife, she bore him sons and daughters, the barroom prospered, property came and went; he grew old, his wife died, he retired from business, and reached the age when a man begins to feel there are not many years in front of him, and that all he has had to do in life has been done. His children married, lonesomeness began to creep about him in the evening, and when he looked into the firelight, a vague tender reverie floated up, and Margaret's soft eyes and name vivified the dusk. His wife and children passed out of mind, and it seemed to him that a memory was the only real thing he possessed, and the desire to see Margaret again grew intense. But she was an old woman, she had married, maybe she was dead. Well, he would like to be buried in the village where he was born.

There is an unchanging, silent life within every man that none knows but himself, and his unchanging silent life was his memory of Margaret Dirken. The barroom was forgotten and all that concerned it, and the things he saw most clearly were the green hillside, and the bog lake and the rushes about it, and the greater lake in the distance, and behind it the blue line of wandering hills.

From: On Being Foreign: Culture Shock in Short Fiction
An International Anthology

T. J. Lewis and R. E. Jungman, Editors

Jorge Luis Borges

The Captive

THIS STORY IS TOLD out in one of the old frontier towns—either Junín or Tapalquén. A boy was missing after an Indian raid; it was said that the marauders had carried him away. The boy's parents searched for him without any luck; years later, a soldier just back from Indian territory told them about a blue-eyed savage who may have been their son. At long last they traced him (the circumstances of the search have not come down to us and I dare not invent what I don't know) and they thought they recognized him. The man, marked by the wilderness and by primitive life, no longer understood the words of the language he spoke in childhood, but he let himself be led, uncurious and willing, to his old house. There he stopped—maybe because the others stopped. He stared at the door as though not understanding what it was. All of a sudden, ducking his head, he let out a cry, cut through the entranceway and the two long patios on the run, and burst into the kitchen. Without a second's pause, he buried his arm in the soot-blackened oven chimney and drew out the small knife with the horn handle that he had hidden there as a boy. His eyes lit up with joy and his parents wept because they had found their lost child.

Maybe other memories followed upon this one, but the Indian could not live indoors and one day he left to go back to his open spaces. I would like to know what he felt in that first bewildering moment in which past and present merged; I would like to know whether in that dizzying instant the lost son was born again and died, or whether he managed to recognize, as a child or a dog might, his people and his home.

Translated from the Spanish by Norman Thomas di Giovanni

SELECTION OF EXERCISES FOR SMALL GROUPS

Robert Kohls
Paula Barnak
Sandra Tijitendero
Jackie Segars

A WAY OF GETTING AT AMERICAN VALUES

Robert Kohls

Write on the blackboard:
Cleanliness is next to godliness.
Time is money.
A woman's place is in the home.
Little children should be seen and not heard.

Ask everyone in the group to take 10 to 15 minutes to write down all the American axioms and proverbs they have heard over and over again. (If any foreign students are in the group, have them do the same for their country or countries.)

Then share and collect by writing on the blackboard.

Then, next to each axiom, determine (as a group) what value is being taught.

Examples	Values
Cleanliness is next to godliness	Cleanliness
Time is money	Value of time thriftiness
A penny saved is a penny earned	Thriftiness
Birds of a feather flock together	Guilt through association
Don't cry over spilt milk	Practicality
Waste not; want not	Frugality
Early to bed, early to rise...	Diligence
God helps those who help themselves	Initiative
It's not whether you win or lose, but...	Good sportsmanship
A man's home is his castle	Privacy; property
No rest for the wicked	Guilt; work ethic
You've made your bed, now sleep in it	Responsibility

These are only a few, very random examples. The list is endless, but the point has been made. With only a dozen or so axioms, you have a pretty good list of American values being expressed.

You might then want to have the groups brainstorm other basic American values which are still missing from our list.

Comments:

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Adapted from "Personal Role Model" in Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training, 1970. Albert R. Wight and Mary Anne Hammons, eds.

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(23) MARITAL ROLES SCALE

OBJECTIVE

Clarification of one's preferred marital roles as they pertain to his/her cultural identifications.

PARTICIPANTS

One or more persons. Facilitator if done as a group exercise. Group members should represent various cultural viewpoints.

MATERIALS

Pencils. Scales for each participant.

SETTING

No special requirements.

TIME

At least ten minutes.

PROCEDURE

) Each participant is given a copy of the scale and a pencil.

2) Participants fill in one response before each of the following statements to indicate what they believe is right as a matter of principle. The responses are to be marked as follows:

SA -- Strongly Agree; A -- Agree; U -- Undecided; D -- Disagree;

SD -- Strongly Disagree.

3) If done as a group exercise, compare and discuss responses in regard different cultural beliefs.

______ 1. The husband should help with the housework.

______ 2. The wife should take a job if she wants to.

______ 3. The husband should help wash dishes.

______ 4. If a husband runs around, so can his wife.

______ 5. Wives are too independent these years.

______ 6. If the husband wants children, the wife should agree.

______ 7. The husband should decide who is to spend the extra money.

______ 8. Husbands should be more strict with their wives.

______ 9. What a husband does in his spare time is his own business.

______10. The husband should decide where to live.

______11. The wife should fit her life to her husband's.

______12. The husband's wishes should come first in most things.

______13. Marriage is the best career for the woman.

______14. The husband should wear the "pants" in the family.

______15. If the husband is running around with another woman, his wif should put up with it until he comes to his senses.

______16. It's okay for the wife to earn as much as her husband.

______17. A wife should let her husband decide most things.

______18. Almost all money matters should be decided by the husband.

Name: ______________________________

MANAGING IN A CROSS-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT
FEEDBACK FORM

Please answer the following questions. Your input will help us prepare future courses of this type. Most questions require only an "X" in the appropriate space.

Many thanks for your help!!!

1. How would you rate this course overall?

   ___ Excellent ___ Good ___ Fair ___ Poor

2. Did this course meet:

   ___ Most of your expectations?
   ___ Some of your expectations?
   ___ None of your expectations?

3. In your opinion, did the course contain:

   ___ Too much material for the time allotted?
   ___ About the right amount of material?
   ___ Not enough material - too many sessions dragged?

4. Please rate the following:

	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Lectures	___	___	___	___
Class Discussions/Presentations	___	___	___	___
Case Studies/Critical Incidents	___	___	___	___
Films	___	___	___	___
Guest Speakers	___	___	___	___

5. Any other comments, suggestions, recommendations?

   ____

   ____

   ____

   ____

"WHAR YOU FROM?": TEACHING CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN THE BUSINESS COMMUNICATION CLASSROOM

by

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"Whar You From?": Teaching Cultural Differences in the Business Communication Classroom

In the movie Dog Day Afternoon, Al Pacino asks his partner in crime what country he would like to escape to. The partner replies, "Wyoming." This response is not unlike that many business and professional communication instructors receive when they approach their students with the idea of an international business community. Many students, especially those who are first-generation college students or who are not especially well-traveled, may see the world as consisting of three parts: home, the rest of the United States, and the rest of the world. One of the most difficult teaching tasks business and professional communication professors face is instructing these students on the importance of appreciating cultural differences and their effect on business communication both nationally and globally. If Wyoming is not a foreign country, Japan, Mexico, and Germany certainly are--and for some of our students, the Asian-American executive raised in Wyoming would be as "foreign" as the German executive who can trace her ancestry back for generation to generation.

When students are from an essentially homogeneous background where cultural differences are few, they are apt to dismiss or even disparage cultural differences both inter-country and intra-country in nature. With the increasing importance of international communication and the large number of business and professional people who are not white, male, and country club members in good standing, students need to be taught that just because it was not made in Akron, Waycross, or Des Moines does not mean it is inferior. The purpose of this paper is to describe a series of inter-connected exercises that gives students a sense of other cultures--including a view of their own culture as "other."

First Exercise

I have students speculate out loud about customs and manners of other parts of the country. Two things prove helpful here: my own background as a southerner and the significant influence of television. I first ask students to describe what their perceptions of southerners are and where they got them from. (Of course, an instructor from any part of the country who finds himself or herself in a different one can play this game.) This request leads to a great deal of good-natured ribbing as a number of Akronites can trace their roots to the rocky soil of West Virginia. Comments about hillbillies, hicks, cars on blocks, grits, and so on abound, as you might expect.

The students grow pensive when I ask them how they formed their opinions; while some of them blame relatives--which I encourage!--most admit that they learned about southerners from television and cite The Dukes of Hazard as the primary culprit, with various television movies and sit-coms coming in for their share of guilt. The discussion then moves to how others might regard people from Ohio in general and northern Ohio specifically. Again, this is easily adapted to almost any part of the country. Students talk about the negative impact stories on the troubled economy of the region might have on viewers and newspaper readers; they also talk about how rural people in Ohio have always been regarded as hicks. While the discussion is generally light, the students are beginning to understand how various cultural transmitters can distort the truth, to put it kindly, and create unfair portraits which nonetheless influence opinion, no matter how unfairly.

I then have students assume roles of people from different parts of the country. Certainly, this leads to a great deal of good-humored sport, but students realize two things from this role-playing: they realize how differences, no matter exaggerated, do exist and affect communication, and they also realize they can respect those differences. for this part of the exercise, I may have a student enact, say him or her conception of an Hispanic businessman used to--and insistent upon--a leisurely lunch or a part-time homemaker who must rush--yes, RUSH--to pick up her (or his) child from day care and who has no time for lunch at all. In these roles which they write out first, students assume what they believe are the manners and mores of people from other cultural backgrounds, and while the effect is often sweetly comical, the lesson is not: other cultures exist right here and, just as the students themselves might be perceived as foreign, so do they perceive others. I end this first exercise by having students list three stereotypes about the people they love they do not want others to have. The discussion of this segment is especially interesting when minority students contribute--loudly.

Second Exercise

I next have students compare cultural differences with the differences among executives and executive levels in any organization. I introduce this segment by explaining that I am an assistant professor and that I do not have the same power or authority as a full professor. I provide examples, too! Again, the students are amused, but they grow more serious as I ask them to jot down the differences between their bosses and themselves at their jobs, or the differences between their professors and themselves.

To be sure, hierarchy has a great deal to do with different behaviors, but students, with encouragement, expand their discussion to include the cultural differences between being boss and worker--and how those roles are reinterpreted when the boss in turn reports to his or her boss. I finally ask students to begin creating their own definition of the word "culture." Not only do words such as "manners," "race," "religion," and "money," come into play, as do the more expected ones such as "art" and "music," but students begin to include "power" in their definition as well.

This leads to what I believe is the most interesting part of our exploration: what does power have to do with our relationships with other peoples and other cultures? Students then tentatively explore the military and economic roles of the United States and how these do or do not affect their relationships with people from those other cultures. Admittedly, the discussion is no threat to the political science seminars at Harvard,and the students' knowledge of history proves to be sketchier than is comforting, but the point is made: they learn from their talk that the use or abuse of strength is a powerful cultural factor.

Students next discuss ways they have seen American culture and language transferred to other cultures. With the recently emergent economic power of some Asian countries, students usually wonder out loud to what extend such influences will alter "our" culture. The ensuing exchange points up the obvious: that "their" culture is already here. But to these largely white or black students, a consciousness of what constitutes culture and power--and of those things are affected and affect power--is a new consciousness. One of the best recent examples is the "reverse" discrimination of Asian-American students in some better universities that, seeking to maintain a racial "balance," turn down qualified Asian Americans for less qualified white students. When this is brought up, the discussion of culture, power, and the students' own lives gets quite heated and far-ranging. No matter how far it goes, however, the discussion does return to the central issue: cultural differences and the professions. By now, what the students thought was going to be quaint exercise about quaint "other" people has in fact proved to challenge some of their basic assumptions about other cultures int he United States as well as their own.

Third Exercise

I conclude this unit by having students research other countries and businesses. In addition to providing valuable library experience for them, this final exercise also promotes a healthy respect for other cultures.

For example, most students respect, say, the economic power of SONY but would have no idea how to handle a meeting with a Japanese businessman. By researching in a variety of sources, determining what would be proper behavior on such an occasion, students learn that economic respect and/or fear need not serve as the only basis for a relationship. While some of the women in the class may be horrified by what they perceive as the terrible conditions of women in Japan and other cultures, for example, they nonetheless come to understand that in a business meeting, it is perhaps less their job to question another culture's values than to understand the dynamics at work, to the degree that they can.

In addition to being surprised and/or dismayed by some of the information they unearth, students also come across contradictory information. One source may tell them that a German businessman will expect to discuss his family a great deal during the course of a meeting, while another might say that a "typical" German would not do such a thing, but you can expect it of a Frenchman, and so on. This disturbs them at first, but they soon learn to sift the information and rely on what they most commonly find in the better sources. Thus, students not only learn about customs and other cultures, but they also develop and refine some significant research techniques that will serve them in the future.

Once students have some ideas of the manners of other cultures, they role play a brief meeting between, say, a Nigerian student and a college dean or a businessman from Malaysia. The results offer no threat to the Yale Drama Department and awkwardness abounds. Yet the role-play makes students realize that if they have trouble assuming the manners of another people, surely those people must have some difficulty when they come to the United States and/or encounter Americans. When the students explore such issues as body space, conversational customs, and the treatment of women as these matters connect to business, they realize that culture consists of something more than which rock group is big this year and how you wear your hair.

Conclusion

While the three preceding exercises offer merely an introduction to world business, they are nonetheless valuable--I hope--in ridding students of at least some of their provincialism. Of course, not all students need this kind of purge, but many students--dare I say many American students?--need to know the world is not bordered by Los Angeles and Fort Lauderdale. In recognizing the connections between the cultural expectations they have of each other and those they have of their own work places and schools, students realize they already move successfully among different cultures. To adapt this mobility they simply must learn, and make greater effort to learn, the varied cultural expectations of so-called "foreign peoples." The various role-plays and research efforts required in these exercises serve to heighten student awareness that not everyone in the world--or even down the street--is of their own culture.

Once students possess this knowledge, the instructor can then take advantage of it in other ways. For instance, students may then be reminded that the so-called Standard American English they must use in business communication is in fact simply a cultural compromise hammered out--and being hammered out even now--by different people trying to communicate. Instructors might also want to point out other issues in business that are culturally determined: child care for working parents, promotions for women and minorities--and that hangman's noose known as the necktie. Whether the concern is over the proper bow in Japan or the proper knot in Cleveland, there are few students who do not need to be reminded that the way we do it in America is not the only way to do it in the world.

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ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN DESIGNING THE INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION COURSE

by

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ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN DESIGNING THE INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION COURSE

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This paper addresses a major concern in the design of the international business communications course: the role which ethics should play in such a course. The observations made in this paper are drawn in large part from the personal experience of the author in designing and subsequently teaching over three years the international business communication course taught in the Department of Management of Eastern Michigan University's College of Business. This course, whose design was funded in part by a Title VIA grant from the U.S. Department of Education, was among the first international business communication courses on an undergraduate level in a business college in the United States. Indeed, the difficulties in determining an answer to the question of what role ethics should play in such a course were somewhat exacerbated by the fact that the course at the time of its creation was such a rarity in most colleges of business.

In recent times a great deal of attention has been given to the the part ethics play in the business world and consequently in business education. In the United States in particular, society has imposed increasingly greater demands on its business community. Within 100 years, the standard of business ethics has shifted from the era of the so-called "robber barons" to one in which the businessperson is expected to actively help solve such basic national ills as race discrimination, poverty, pollution and sexism.

Admittedly, much of what the business community has done to solve these fundamental societal problems has taken place precisely because local, state and national governmental bodies have passed laws forcing companies and firms to comply. Nevertheless, those who run these same firms and companies have increasingly come to grapple with issues that have a clear ethical component. Business is no longer expected merely to meet society's economic needs. Even if only out of fear of future legislation forcing compliance, companies and firms are expected to choose what can be seen in ethical terms as that which is right or good by society's standards.

However, as the awareness of the need for ethical business behavior is increasing, businesspeople most begin to grapple with the philosophical issue of defining ethics. The author of this paper makes no attempt to define ethics or even to lay out an ethical standard universally acceptable for business in all cultures. That, if it is even possible at all, would be the task of philosophers and sociologists. However, it is hoped that the issue is raised for the reader of the extreme difficulty if not the impossibility of determining an ethical standard acceptable for use in international business.

Ethics for business are difficult enough to determine within a single domestic situation. Within the United States, at least, evidence exists that seems to indicate businesspeople have no single source from which to draw their ethics. Indeed, Raymond Baumhart (1968) cites a survey of U.S. businesspeople indicated that ethics was largely a subjective and personal matter. In this survey, 50 percent of the respondents indicated that they defined the word ethical to mean "what my feelings tell me is right" (p. 10).

Before we continue, then, perhaps it is necessary to define what is meant by ethics. For our purposes, we may define ethics as the assessment of of good and bad or of right and wrong. Business ethics refers to using judgements of good and bad or right and wrong to determine appropriate business behavior rather than merely relying on management or accounting principles and marketing strategies.

In international business, however, companies and firms face a problem beyond merely determining the right course of action according to society's standards. In an international framework, the question arises as to which society the businessperson selects as the one whose standards of right and wrong he or she must base his ethics. When the standards of right and wrong vary between the two cultures the businessperson must decide which culture's standards are the appropriate ethical standards.

Significantly, it is almost impossible to determine ethical absolutes in the absence of culturally biased guidelines. It is common, for example, possible to determine ethics based on a legalistic, religious or situational foundation. However all of these groundworks on which the superstructure of ethical behavior may be built are laid out acccording to the existing prejudices and values of the individual cultures which rely on them.

Those people whose ethics are determined legalistically are likely to belong to what Edward Hall (1959, 1983) refers to as low context cultures -- cultures such as the United States or Northern Europe which lay great value on the written word. In such cultures, heavy reliance on written rules and codification of behavior into law make right and wrong fairly straightforward. Moreover, because respect for legalism as a system of behavior exists, such laws act as directives that demand compliance rather than guidelines to be taken or ignored as the situation demands.

However, the codes and statutes of each culture vary. Even were those low context cultures which through tradition or religious leanings to agree on a set of common principles to set into law -- itself an extremely unlikely supposition -- their cultural bias toward the sacredness of laws and rules would not be shared by many other cultures. These high context cultures are more likely to believe that adherence to rules depends largely on the context in which the rules are set. Thus, a businessperson from a low context culture is likely to feel strongly bound by a written contract, even if the contract were signed under duress. In short, it would be unethical to break from the agreement described in the contract. By contrast, in a high context culture, breaking the contract might not seem unethical in certain situations. For example, if the contract were signed under duress, could be seen as invalid. What matters most in such a culture is the relationship between people. Conversely, if no contract were signed between a buyer and supplier with a longstanding good relationship, the buyer of a low context culture would feel little ethical obligation to continue buying from the supplier if a less expensive supplier could be found. The high context buyer, by contrast, would find such a break in the relationship to be ethically troubling since it is the relationship and not the written contract or law that binds the two together.

The members of a high context culture tend to favor a situational approach to ethics. While not exactly believing in antimonianism or existentialism, some cultures are more likely than others to approach every situation as unique. Human behavior defies codification; laws and strict rules are therefore of little specific value when dealing with specific ethical situations rather than general principles. To assess the ethical, that is the right, course of action using a situational approach, one must assess all of the factors unique to the individual situation. For such cultures, ethics are relative. Ethical decisions are thus reached on an ad hoc basis.

As for using religious grounds to determine ethical standards, the obvious question arises as to which religion's ethics one chooses to follow. Divine revelation as a justification for action for many religions negates the possiblility of divine revelation as a source of action for those holding different religious beliefs.

Even in the three situations described above, great cultural chasms divide the ground for a universal ethical standard. And these three situations do not even take into account such relatively univeral philosophical differences of teleoligical or deontological ethical approaches within whatever system is culturally acceptable.

We thus see that no easy answer occurs to the question of what ethics are. This raises the next question, that which is the subject of this paper: what does the instructor of a course in international business communication teach as the appropriate ethical standard to use. Since any system of ethics is likely to be culturally biased, different cultures will hold different ethical standards. However, each culture's standards are equally valid as long as they remain within the culture that accepts them. Since international business brings those people holding these differing standards together, it is no longer possible to accept both standards equally.

The question then arises as to what point one rejects the norms and values of one's own culture to accommodate the conflicting norms and values of another culture. To some extent this question can be answered by the usual admonitions of such cross-cultural experts as Sitaram and Cogdell (1976), Ruben (1987) and Singer (1987) for the need to be flexible in one's views of right and wrong in international situations. For these authors as well as many others, in the absence of a metaethic, an open-minded willingness to modify or alter one's own ethical views is the only acceptable approach to communicating across cultures.

To a large extent, this ethical approach of ethical relativity is arguably the most practical one available to the international businessperson. A society which works on Sundays and conducts a brisk trade in the production of wooden idols may seem to be condemned to damnation in the life hereafter to a fundamentalist Christian. However, if that fundamentalist Christian wishes to compete at maximum efficiency in selling wood to that country, he or she would do best to sell on Sunday and pass no restrictions on the use of the wood. If these compromises in the Christian's ethics are too great, the most appropriate course would be to withdraw from that foreign market. Of course, compromises are possible on both sides of the cultural barrier. Such an all or nothing approach need not be the only option. Perhaps the foreign culture would agree to accept the Christian's ban on Sunday work if the Christian withheld condemnation on the sin of idol-worship and so forth.

However, the proponents of ethical relativism in international business fail to address one particularly significant issue. How does the businessperson address those ethical issues that run up against an immutable characteristic. When the norms and values of a society condemn people based on gender or on race how should one from a culture with a conflicting view of the immutable characteristic behave?

To some extent, ethical relativism could still apply. When neither party has such an immutable characteristic, for example, either party can alter their view toward condemning or accepting those with the characteristic in question. However, since one cannot change one's gender or race (or to a lesser extent one's political party or religion) The degree to which the traditional advice of flexibility in handling cross-cultural differences applies in such instances becomes unclear.

No easy solution to this question exists. In such instances, the cross-cultural communicator enters what Dean Barnlund (1982) has called "an ethical void". Since all ethics are culturally derived and no particular set of ethics can in any objective and truly multicultural way be considered better than any other, the businessperson in an increasingly global world economy must determine what is right or wrong with very little guidance. As Barnlund has observed, "the cross-cultural encounter is protected by no standards of ethical adequacy." (p. 379).

The need to be flexible in cross-cultural business relations is extremely important. It is not our intention, in short, to suggest a renewal of cultural intransigency. Indeed, the number of businesspeople who weaken their position in the global marketplace through cultural myopia is at once large and needless, as Ricks et al. (1974) among others have amply documented. Businesspeople should be encouraged to accept and work with differences in such matters as language, time perception, nonverbal behavior, technology, and in most cases even social organization, and authority conception. Inflexibility toward cross-cultural differences of these sort can and should be discouraged.

Yet even as we encourage cross-cultural flexibility for many -- even most-- issues, we should be wary of finding points of accommodation on all areas of cross-cultural differences.

Where we choose to draw the line is one of individual ethics, which is in itself culturally determined. It is suggested that it is necessary to draw that line in cases affecting immutable characteristics, that is discrimination on the basis of such characteristics as gender, race and religion.

This choice is, at least, one the guideline used by this author in teaching the international business communication course at one university. Admittedly, this is in itself a culturally biased choice influenced by what is a distinctly North American ethical framework. For those from other cultures, the choice they make may well vary to reflect their own societal standards. This is as it should be. In accommodating other behavioral standards in cross-cultural communication, the businessperson must retain the understanding that inevitably he or she inextricably remains a part of his or her own culture.

While variations across culture in general should be viewed not as wrong but simply as different, we risk hiding sophistry under the guise of multiculturalism without some ethical standard. This article offers but one standard, determined by its author's own cultural milieu for use in an international business communication course taught within that cultural milieu.

The purpose of the article, however, is not to suggest that all cross-cultural communicators adopt this standard. Instead, it is suggested simply that the adoption of some standard -- any standard-- not be condemned out of hand in discussions of cross-cultural business communication. As we enter an increasingly globalized world economy, the need for some supracultural ethical standard is growing. While the form this ethic might take is not clear one possible ethic might be to provide the boundaries within which cross-cultural interaction can take place in a manner most likely to create respect for all people, regardless of immutable characteristics. This suggestion is but a starting point for discussions of a more comprehensive standard. It is at the least a call to consider a means by which to fill the ethical void created by unquestioning acceptance of cross-cultural differences, and to curb the abuses allowed by the absence of any standard in cross-cultural business dealings.

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Designing Cross-Cultural Orientation Programs
for
Business

Conference on:

"Languages and Communication for World Business and the Professions"

April 8, 1988

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Designing Cross-Cultural Orientation Programs for Business

Before describing the design of a cross-cultural orientation program, it will be helpful to clarify some terms that are used to characterize various types of intercultural preparations. Janet Bennett, in her article, "Modes of Cross-Cultural Training", neatly differentiates among the terms "orientation", " training" and "education". [1] Briefly, an orientation program is designed to heighten the participants' awareness of cross-cultural variables, to change their attitude toward the impending experience. Training involves changing the way people will act in a new environment and requires a longer time than does simply alerting them to differences. Education, on the other hand, provides a deeper understanding of the principles underlying the cultural variations and, ideally, the ability to transfer that understanding to other, similar, situations.

Training programs may choose to focus on one or more educational approaches: "affective," "cognitive" or "behavioral." Those which produce an affective change involve the client's feelings or attitudes. Those with a cognitive emphasis appeal to the intellect, while those which focus on behavior modification try to induce new and more appropriate ways of acting in the anticipated culture. The most effective training programs combine all three of these emphases. In a one-day orientation program, however, it is unreasonable to expect to change behavior significantly, due to the limited time. The model presented here is primarily cognitive, but has some elements of affective learning.

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[1] Janet M. Bennett, "Modes of Cross-Cultural Training: Conceptualizing Cross-Cultural Training as Education," International Journal of Intercultural Relations, Vol. 10, No. 2 (1986), 118.

Finally, the distinction between culture-general and culture specific orientations is germane. A culture-general approach creates an awareness of the various elements of the communication process and how cultural differences can lead to misunderstanding. With a mixed group of business clients, who may be going to work in several different foreign countries or perhaps work with foreign counterparts here, the culture-general approach is the only reasonable one. A culture specific approach, on the other hand, draws most of its examples from a particular target culture and is appropriate when the clients are all destined to work with a particular national or ethnic group.

Establishing Goals:

In designing an intercultural orientation program, the first step is to identify the overall goal. A one-day orientation program cannot accomplish much training, that is, produce meaningful change in the participants' behavior. So the primary purpose will be limited to introducing them to relevant ideas and appropriate attitudes toward the cross-cultural experience. More specific goals should be developed in keeping with the expected audience, in this case, for example, business people who will be working in a variety of foreign countries. The workshop makes no claim to instruct clients in specific cross-cultural business practices, as that would be unrealistic in a one-day session. So our approach will be culture-general and focussed, where appropriate, on the business setting. It will include a mix of cognitive and experiential activities.

In designing programs for specific groups, one , of course, has to consider that organization's or group's needs and tailor the program accordingly. Even for a group all going to one country, however, it is more effective to include culture-general as well as culture specific concepts in the program design.[2] This provides participants with a conceptual framework in which to fit their experiences and so make sense of what may otherwise be a bewildering flurry of experiences and feelings.

If the program is to be presented to non-American clients, a third consideration, in addition to the culture-general/culture specific and professional focus, will be the learning style to which the particpants are accustomed. Experiential activities are often uncomfortable enough for American clients, but, for some foreign nationals, role plays and simulations may be completely alien to their accepted ways of learning. Including them could thus disrupt the program.

Conceptual Framework:

The orientation program described here includes the following components: (1) the need for cross-cultural orientation, 2) overview of concepts related to intercultural communication, (3) awareness of oneself as a cultural being, (4) the role of values and beliefs, (5) non-verbal codes, (6) the spoken language, (7) culture shock, and (8) evaluation. These basic concepts should provide potential sojourners with the means to see themselves and others in relative terms, identify some sources of intercultural misunderstanding, and alert them to the emotional adjustments inherent in cross-cultural transitions. These are not the only concepts and exercises that may be useful in cross-cultural preparation. All of these, however, are fundamental to intercultural understanding.

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[2] William B. Gudykunst and Mitchell R. Hammer, "Basic Training Design: Approaches to Intercultural Training," in Handbook of Intercultural Training, Vol. 1, eds. Dan Landis and Richard W. Brislin (New York: Pergamon Press, 1983), p. 147

These concepts and the activities that apply them are illustrated in the model workshop that appears at the end of this article. The duration of each activity is generally twenty to thirty minutes, since this is the period of optimal attention span. Where the participants are actively involved with each other, activities can extend to an hour or longer. As much as possible, the concepts outlined above are implemented by a mix of cognitive and experiential tasks, of theory and practice, of quiet and active learning. The media used are as varied as possible, films, handouts, overhead transparencies, videotapes and audiotapes, to help offset monotony.

The explanation of the design components is presented in the following format. For each step there is a (1) statement of the concept, (2) statement of the objective(s), (3) brief explanation of the objective, (4) illustration of ways of implementing the objective, taken from the model workshop.

Introduction:

Introduce the workshop with an overview of the orientation session, its expected outcomes and duration, explaining briefly its culture-general focus and the variety of learning activities the group will participate in. Participants are usually quite receptive when they understand what to expect. This need take only five to ten minutes.

Concept 1: *Need for training*

Objective: To make clients aware of the importance of cross-cultural orientation and the costs of intercultural insensitivity

The organizer should present the rationale for intercultural orientation prior to the workshop itself. This may be conveyed through the literature that is sent out announcing the program. Describing the benefits of intercultural orientation is part of the public relations or recruiting process. However, it is also important to impress the clients attending the orientation session with the importance of cross-cultural preparation. They may be attending out of curiosity, a general interest or perhaps because their supervisor sent them.

Model Workshop activity: For business clients, present information about the failure rate and costs to the organization of abortive international relocations. For example, Copeland and Griggs in their book, Going International: How to Make Friends and Deal Effectively in the Global Marketplace, cite estimates of 20% to 70% premature returns of overseas staff and families, with costs running as high as $200,000 per failed relocation.[3] The rate of sub-par performance on the job, even when the employee does not return home early, is undoubtedly much higher.

On the other hand, avoid promising glowing results from a one-day orientation session, as all it is really capable of accomplishing is acquainting them with the issues involved. One outcome of the orientation session should be an understanding of the complexity of intercultural interactions and perhaps the need for further training. More in-depth preparation may require several days at least and, ideally, in-country follow-up.

Concept 2: *Overview of intercultural communication concepts*

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[3] Lennie Copeland and Lewis Griggs, Going International: How to Make Friends and Deal Effectively in the Global Marketplace (New York: Random House, 1985), p. xix.

Objective: To enable participants to identify important concepts relating to the impact of culture on the communication process

The participants are introduced to the basic concepts of intercultural communication. From the discipline of communication, these include the relevant components of interpersonal communication, such as the use of time and space, body language, language choice and rhetorical patterns. From anthropology include the pertinent aspects of culture, including customs, values and beliefs, especially as they relate to issues of authority and protocol. This may be accomplished via a mini-lecture.

Workshop activity: In the sample workshop , many of these fundamental ideas are included in the film, "Bridging the Culture Gap", which conveniently combines elements of the first step, illustrating the need for cross-cultural sensitivity, and important concepts of culture and communication in a business context. It is important to follow a film or videotape with a brief guided discussion, to answer questions and to assure that the audience has grasped the major ideas.

Concept 3: *Awareness of self as a cultural being*

Objective 1: To enable participants to identify some of their own cultural values

It is essential to make the participants aware that they themselves are the product of a culture. Often people believe that culture is what "other people" have. Their own is invisible to them, because they are inside it and it colors everything they see, like a pair of sun glasses they have forgotten they have on. This attitude is known as "ethnocentrism", the belief that one's own way of thinking and behaving is the only natural one. Recognizing one's own attitudes is part of developing self-awareness, a crucial step in understanding and appreciating other peoples' attitudes. It is difficult to accept other ways of doing things if one is convinced that they are only aberrations of the "right" way to achieve them. The ultimate objective of this component of orientation is "ethnorelativism", the belief that each culture or people has its distinctive and valuable means of achieving certain results. This implies that one is not necessarily better or worse than the other, merely different. It does not require the American to accept and adopt those patterns of culture, but rather to understand their validity in the context of the culture in which they occur.

The struggle in passing from ethnocentrism to cultural relativity is one that all international sojourners have to cope with. One's cultural and personal identity may be threatened by immersion in "alien" ways of perceiving and acting. The realization that one is himself or herself a cultural being makes it easier to appreciate alternative ways of being. They are no longer automatically perceived as inferior to one's own approach and resistance to them may be reduced.

Workshop activity: In the model workshop, self-awareness begins with having the participants identify their own cultural values. Robert Kohls' book, Developing Intercultural Awareness (DIA) furnishes several excellent activities for this.[4] "Discovering American Values Through American Values" asks the group to list as many American proverbs as possible. Then the sayings are examined to discover what values they express, for example, beliefs in the importance of thriftiness, timeliness and cleanliness. Since values are high level abstractions that are often difficult to verbalize, this technique provides ready access to many basic American values. Participants also find it entertaining.

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[4] (Washington, D.C.: The Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research, 1981), p. 13.

Values clarification exercises of various sorts may be used to induce a degree of self-awareness. Some of them might be related to professionally related issues, such as power relationships in organizations.

Objective 2: To enable participants to understand how others might see them

Once the group has an idea of some characteristic American values, it is useful to let them see how other cultures may view these values. This is the beginning of developing an alternative perspective on themselves as cultural beings. Because these views of Americans are often unflattering, they usually elicit an emotional response in the participants. The initial tendency is to deny these interpretations, but since they have already seen some of their own values in the preceding exercise, the clients frequently have to admit there is a grain of truth in them, even if it has been distorted.

Workshop activity: For this activity an exercise, "Observations of Foreign Visitors about American Behavior," from Kohls' same book is useful (DIA, pp. 7-11). The facilitator reads aloud or distributes copies of the observations to the participants who then discuss their validity.

Objective 3: To enable participants to understand the unreliability of stereotypes

Values are often expressed through characteristic attitudes or behaviors that people from other cultures frequently do not understand.

There is a tendency to generalize about all members of a culture on the basis of superficial observations. These are known as stereotypes. Since they are simplistic, they do not allow for variations or insight into the reasons for certain attitudes or behaviors. Hence they frequently lead to misunderstanding.

Workshop activity: First, ask the group to generate stereotypes of foreigners. Again this is usually entertaining and easy for them to do. Phrases such as "inscrutable Chinese," "excitable Italians," "romantic French" will provide food for thought. Point out that we frequently characterize other peoples on the basis of little real information or understanding of their values and behavior. Then read to them and have them discuss some of Kohls' "Most Common Stereotypes of Foreign Visitors About American Behavior" (DIA, p.12). The presenter should point out, if the group does not verbalize the idea itself, that the stereotypes of foreigners that they came up with are no more accurate or acceptable to the foreigners than were the stereotypes of Americans to them. Hence they should exercise caution in making or accepting stereotypes.

Concept 4: *Role of Values and Beliefs*

Objective: To enable participants to identify ways of classifying cultural values and beliefs and to categorize their own

A useful way of conceptualizing and comparing values and beliefs of widely varying cultures was developed by several anthropologists. The Kluckhohn Values Orientation Chart provides participants with a means of visualizing the range of possible values and beliefs.[5] The five orientations and the three categories of belief are suitable to any culture.

Workshop activity: A good exercise can be found in Kohls' Survival Kit for Overseas Living, (pp. 22-27).[6] Put the Values Orientation Chart on an overhead transparency or distribute individual copies. Explain the definitions and illustrate the categories where necessary. Then ask the group members to put an "X" in the box on a blank values chart that corresponds to mainstream American values for each orientation. Finally, tally the number of people who marked each box.

Two results will be apparent: first, there will be a majority of marks in a particular box, and secondly, most orientations will have marks in more than one box. This reveals two characteristics of societal values; there is a majority value, but there are also minority values that reflect individual or subcultural differences. This observation can be used to reinforce the previous remarks about the inaccuracy of stereotypes.

Concept 5: *Non-verbal codes*

Objective 1: To enable participants to experience "abnormal" expression of certain non-verbal codes

Of the seven non-verbal codes discussed by Burgoon and Saine in The Unspoken Dialogue, the model workshop selects three for the participants to experience.[7] (The codes are: body movement or "kinesics", touch or

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[5] For a full discussion of values and beliefs, consult Chapters 3-5 in John Condon and Fathi Yousef's An Introduction to Intercultural Coimmunication (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1977).

[6] (Chicago: Intercultural Network/Systran Publications, 1979).

[7] Judee K. Burgoon and Thomas Saine, The Unspoken Dialogue: An Introduction to Nonverbal Communication (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1978).

"haptics", physical appearance, voice characteristics or "vocalics", interpersonal space or "proxemics", artifacts, and time or "chronemics".) These three are inherent in any interpersonal encounter: eye contact, interpersonal space and speech qualities other than words. These are all powerful communicative means that are usually out of our conscious awareness and likely to trigger automatic and frequently erroneous judgements of intent or attitude. The first two are treated here and the third along with the unit on spoken language.

Workshop activity: The activity involves role playing in groups of three (or four if necessary) for the interpersonal space and eye contact variations. In both exercises, each member of the group is given a card with instructions on how to act. For the proxemics activity one person is instructed to stand about one foot (closer than normal) from the people they talk to, the second person is told to stand two to three feet (farther than normal) from the others, and the third is instructed to simply engage in a normal social conversation. A fourth, if there is one, can be an observer. For the eye contact activity, the instructions tell one participant to maintain constant eye contact, another to avoid it, and the third to talk as he or she normally would.

After about five minutes of conversation, ask the participants to describe (1) what they observed about their conversational partners' behavior, (2) how they felt, and (3) what interpretation they placed on the others' actions. Repeat the activity for the second code. After discussion the facilitator should point out that there are cultures where these apparently "abnormal" behaviors are the norm, and where our norms would seem strange and open to misinterpretation.

The advantage of even such brief role plays is their combination of cognitive and affective learning.

Objective 2: To enable participants to identify the codes of non-verbal communication

The non-verbal aspects of intercultural communication constitute the next conceptual component of the orientation program. In the model workshop the participants experience the codes first and then conceptualize them, for the sake of variety. The ideas may be introduced first, however, followed by the role plays. Non-verbal signs may carry over half of the total information that we receive from a speaker. If we misinterpret these signs, even when we understand the verbal message, we may misconstrue the other person's intentions or feelings. The chances of misreading these signs increases greatly when dealing with foreigners whose non-verbal codes may vary as widely as their verbal codes.

Workshop activity: The presenter explains briefly the seven non-verbal codes and then shows the film, "Communication: The Nonverbal Agenda", which examines kinesics in the context of a corporation, although a monocultural American one. This allows participants to see illustrations of some of the non-verbal behaviors they role played and then learned about in the lecturette. Discuss the major points in the film to make sure they have been understood. Some examples of cross-cultural non-verbal differences might be recalled here from the morning's film, "Bridging the Culture Gap".

Concept 6: *The spoken language*

Objective 1: To enable participants to understand the importance of a foreign language

The last important component of intercultural communication presented here is the spoken language. It should be axiomatic that a visitor planning to work in another country for an extended period of time learn the language of that country. Yet repeatedly one hears that "everyone there speaks English," that "I couldn't possibly take the time to learn the language well enough to conduct business in it," or that interpreters are always available. The American sojourner will feel more secure and adapt better if he or she studies the language, even if only for social use and running errands. He or she will have some idea of what is being said around them. Perhaps most important, it communicates to one's foreign counterparts that one cares enough about their culture to study its language.

Workshop activity: Lead a discussion of their experiences with foreigners, in business or elsewhere, and their perceptions of and reactions to them when their command of English is limited. How readily do Americans attempt to communicate with people who cannot express themselves in English? How frustrating is it, both to the foreigner and the American, when they cannot comprehend simple directions and basic phrases? How much appreciation of American society do they have when they speak no English? Compare this attitude to the one they would hold toward a foreigner who may speak our language with an accent and some mistakes, but who manage to make themselves understood?

When to use the foreign language will depend, of course, upon the degree of fluency and the circumstances in which one finds oneself. In all cases, however, proper use of the language should be considered an expression of respect for the culture.

Objective 2: To enable participants to understand how non-verbal aspects of language can lead to misinterpretation

Related to the words spoken in a language are various features such as pitch, stress, intonation pattern, rate and volume. These are considered an aspect of non-verbal communication, "vocalics" or "paralanguage". There are three distinct cases where such features need to be brought to conscious awareness. The first is native speakers of English from other countries, such as India, Nigeria and Australia. The second is speakers of English as a second language, and the third, speakers of foreign languages. It would seem that the first case poses no problem, but in fact we attribute attitudes and meanings to speakers whose words are perfectly comprehensible, but whose intonation or stress patterns are different from those we are accustomed to. The same applies to some extent to speakers of other languages using English. Their different accents can cause credibility and other problems for the speaker of American English. Even when foreigners are using their own language, American listeners who understand none of the words may attribute attitudes and emotions to them based on intonation, stress, rate of speaking and volume characteristics. An Italian, for example, who may seem to speak faster and more loudly than a typical American may be perceived as excitable or angry. The purpose of this exercise is to make people aware of how readily and easily we make attributions of personal characteristics based vocal characteristics other than words.

Workshop activity: In the model workshop, the videotape "Crosstalk" illustrates and analyzes the case of Indian immigrants coping with British institutions and how their paralinguistic qualities can cause problems. This is followed by a brief discussion of the salient points.

Another means of conveying the same idea is to prerecord speakers of other languages reading a passage aloud in English, or discussing the same topic in English with an American interviewer. Play the tape for the group and ask the participants to rate the credibility of the various speakers. Certain accents will show greater credibility than others, regardless of the individual who is speaking.

A similar exercise can be carried out with foreigners speaking their native tongues. Record a series of brief conversations about a topic in several languages. Play the tape and ask the listeners to make judgements about which speakers are more excited, calm, irritated, serious, and so forth.

Concept 7: *"Culture shock"*

Objective 1: To enable participants to identify the stages of culture shock

Culture shock is the disorientation that results from new and ambiguous stimuli in the cultural environment (such as the language, non-verbal behavior, customs, values and beliefs). A sojourner may pass through several stages of culture shock: euphoria, confusion and anger, rejection of host nationals, gradual acceptance, pre-return excitement, and possibly re-entry shock. These may be characterized by a series of physical symptoms as well. Culture shock is considered to be another form of psychological stress, similar to a major job change or other emotional adjustment.[8]

Workshop activity: Present culture shock in a mini-lecture, "Culture Shock: A Process of Transition", illustrating the stages with examples of common symptoms.

Objective 2: To enable participants to identify skills for coping with culture shock and for preparing for their sojourn

A variety of ways of coping with the stress of cultural adjustment exist. These include increased rest and relaxation, bringing personal treasures from home, consulting with others having experienced similar situations, planning successful mini excursions, and studying the language and customs. Simply being able to recognize one's emotional reactions as part of a common adaptation process provides some help in coping with them.

Workshop activity: After outlining some of the coping skills for culture shock, suggest ways that the participants may prepare for their stay. These may include reading up on the history and culture of the country (such as the sources listed in Kohls' Developing Intercultural Awareness [pp. 66-69[as well as his Survival Kit For Overseas Living. [pp. 87-88]), studying the language, planning what items of personal value to take along, and talking with people who have worked there or who are from that country.

In order to end on a note of pleasant anticipation, ask the participants to brainstorm the beneficial and exciting aspects of a sojourn abroad. These may include an increase in pay or benefits, more job responsibility, greater chances for promotion, visits to historical and natural sites, new cuisine, educational advantages of studying another language and culture, meeting new friends, and so forth. This will conclude the session with energy and a positive outlook.

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[8] A good discussion of culture shock and its "treatment" can be found in Gary R. Weaver's article, "Understanding and Coping With Cross-Cultural Adjustment Stress" in Cross-Cultural Orientation: New Conceptualizations and Applications, ed. Michael Page (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1986), pp. 111-145.

Conclusion:

Although it is not part of the conceptual framework of the model orientation session, a guided conclusion is as important structurally as the introduction. Since it has been over seven hours since the orientation session began, some of the initial ideas and examples may have been forgotten. Succinctly review the materials, exercises and concepts covered. This is helpful in preparing for the last component of the session, evaluation.

Conclude by relating to the participants that those who have the most realistic expectations about their experiences abroad adapt best to the foreign culture. The purpose of the workshop has been to create appropriate expectations. However, as The Experiment in International Living is fond of urging its trainees: "Expect the unexpected." That is what makes going abroad an adventure.

Concept 8: ***Evaluation***

Objective: To provide the presenters with a measure of the effectiveness of each component of the orientation program

It is helpful to have an evaluation of both the perceived usefulness of the entire orientation program as well as of the individual components. In that way the presenters can modify whatever activities seemed less successful and retain those that were effective.

Workshop activity: Have participants complete an evaluation form such as the one given by Robert Kohls in Developing Intercultural Awareness. (pp. 73-76).

The ideas and exercises in this workshop have proven useful in alerting potential sojourners to the need for intercultural sensitivity and to some of the variables involved. Among the other possibilities that might have been included, with more time or a different focus, are case studies, simulations and skill development activities.

The most important considerations in designing cross-cultural orientation programs are clearly articulated goals and objectives that are relevant to the clients' needs and that address the major issues in culture and communication.

Cross-Cultural Orientation for Business

A One-day Workshop

Concept	Activities	Duration
Introduction	Purpose of workshop; goals, methods	10 min.
Need for Orientation	Mini-lecture: Business Blunders Abroad	20 min.
Overview: communication & culture	Film: "Bridging the Culture Gap"	30 min.
	Discussion	15 min.
Self-awareness through values	Discovering American Values	20 min.
	BREAK	15 min.
	How Others See Us	10 min.
	Stereotypes: (1) of foreigners (2) of Americans	30 min.
Conceptualizing values	Kluckhohn Values Orientation Chart	30 min.
	LUNCH	60 min.

Recapitulation	Brief review of morning session ideas	10 min.
Nonverbal communication	Small group interactions: (1) proxemics (2) eye contact	20 min.
	Mini-lecture: Nonverbal codes	15 min.
	Film: "Communication: The Nonverbal Agenda"	25 min.
	Discussion	15 min.
Spoken language	Discussion: The importance of language	15 min.
	BREAK	15 min.
	Mini-lecture: Vocalics	15 min.
	Videotape: "Crosstalk"	20 min.
	Discussion	15 min.
Cultural adjustment	"Culture Shock: A Process of Transition"	20 min.
	Coping skills and predeparture preparation	30 min.
Conclusion	Discussion: What Have You Learned?	10 min.
Evaluation	Participants complete evaluation forms	15 min.

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Brief Annotated Bibliography and Materials List

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Kohls, Robert. Survival Kit for Overseas Living. Chicago: Intercultural Network/Systran Publications, 1979. *Handy brief self-study guide for participants ,both pre- and post-departure.*

Weaver, Gary R. "Understanding and Coping With Cross-Cultural Adjustment Stress" in Cross-Cultural Orientation: New Conceptualizations and Applications, ed. Michael Page. Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1986. *A useful description of the causes and remedies of culture shock, with implications for trainers.*

Audio-visual

"Communication: The Non-verbal Agenda", a film presenting differing non-verbal messages in a corporate setting. *Available for rental from: Michigan Media, 400 Fourth St., Ann Arbor, Michigan 48103-4816.*

"Cross-talk", a videotape analyzing misunderstandings caused by paralinguistic and rhetorical features of English as spoken by Indians in Britain. *Available from: Films, Inc., 144 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Illinois 60091.*

"Going International", a series of 4 films: "Bridging the Culture Gap", "Managing the Overseas Assignment", "Beyond Culture", "Welcome Home, Stranger". *Available from: Copeland Griggs Productions, 411 Fifteenth Avenue, San Francisco, California 94118.*

Biography: John D. Ogden

I have spent considerable time overseas, starting with a year stay in Italy when I was 11 years old. The taste of foreign cultures got into my blood, so that when I graduated from Brown University in 1965 with a B.A. in French, my fiancée and I got married and left a day and a half later for Peace Corps training. We spent two years in Liberia as teachers from 1965 to 1967. Upon returning to the U.S., I got an M.A. and a Ph.D. in French at SUNY at Buffalo with a dissertation of French-language poets from Africa and the Caribbean. In 1970-'71 I lived in Paris while doing research on my thesis and then came to the University of Michigan-Flint where I have been ever since. During 1981-'82 I held a Fulbright Lectureship at Omar Bongo University in Libreville, Gabon. For the past few years I have been working on an M.A. in Communication, with an emphasis on intercultural, at MSU. Currently I am Associate Professor of French and Chairman of the Foreign Language Department at UM-Flint. Next year, on my sabbatical, I plan to go to France to work with intercultural specialists.

THE STATUS OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION TRAINING IN THE 100 LARGEST MULTI-NATIONAL UNITED STATES CORPORATIONS

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AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS
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THE STATUS OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION TRAINING IN THE 100 LARGEST MULTI-NATIONAL UNITED STATES CORPORATIONS

Intense competition, increasingly global markets, and rapid technological changes are problems that will continue to intensify as American business enters the 21st Century. Will America's future executives be prepared to succeed in the approaching international business environment?

In the March 7, 1988, issue of U. S. NEWS AND WORLD REPORTS, the following was stated about future executives:

> If you can tell time in Bonn and know the exchange rate in Seoul, feel at home with spreadsheets and mix well with politicians, the new millennium beckons. But most U. S. managers must retool their thinking to become the 21st Century Executive.

Many American executives seem oblivious to the need for international business experience in their careers. A survey by Korn-Ferry International, as reported in the March 7, 1988, issue of U. S. NEWS AND WORLD REPORTS, showed that time spent overseas was considered to be valuable; however, only .4 percent of the respondents thought it was the fastest way to the top of the corporate ladder.

Rapid technological advances in transportation and electronics have made the concept of a global society a reality in the 20th century. Americans have been purchasing foreign-made goods, and engaging in international business, at an increasing rate each year.

Foreign competition has caused problems as well as provided benefits for American consumers; but foreign manufacturers have helped raise the standard of living for the typical American by providing high-quality goods at reasonable prices.

In order for businesses to maintain a competitive advantage, many domestic firms have found it necessary to locate American workers in foreign environments. The training of these individuals has been a problem, and it has been handled in various ways. Since many Americans are presently being prepared for overseas assignments, in 1987 the writers conducted a study to determine the extent of the training being provided for these individuals.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine answers to the following questions:

1. Do selected firms which conduct a large volume of international business have formal training programs to prepare their employees for overseas assignments?
2. What topics are included in these programs?
3. What are the qualifications of the training directors who are responsible for administering these programs?

Delimitations and Methodology

The study was delimited to the 100 largest multi-national United States corporations, as listed on pp. 186-188 of the July 29, 1985, issue of FORBES magazine. In June, 1987, an opinionnaire (Appendix A) and a cover letter were sent to the training directors of these firms, who were asked to complete and return the instrument within three weeks. In July, 1987, and in August, 1987, follow-up letters were sent to the training directors who did not respond to the original mailing. One hundred opinionnaires were mailed, and 43 usable responses were received.

Presentation of the Findings

According to the respondents to the survey who administered the programs:

1. No specific job title was prevalent.

2. The masters degree was the most-prevalent level of education.

3. No particular undergraduate major was prevalent.

4. No particular graduate major was prevalent.

5. The number of years the respondents had been in their present positions ranged "from one to eight," with eight years being the most-prevalent amount of time.

6. The ages of the training directors ranged between "26-30" and "61-65," with "31-35" and "46-50" being the most-prevalent brackets.

7. Only seven of the 43 respondents' firms had formal programs to train employees for overseas assignments.

8. The length of the training programs varied between "less than one day" to "one week," with "two or three days" being the most-prevalent answer.

9. "Family relocation," "cultural differences," and "cultural sensitivity" were the things which received the greatest emphasis.

10. More top-level and middle-level managers were trained for overseas assignments than any other category.

11. More employees were trained to work in Japan than for any other country.

12. Most of the respondents whose companies had formal training programs developed their own training materials and manuals or used private outside consultants.

13. When training individuals, no one problem was significant.

14. "Language difficulties" and "availability of contact persons" were the items cited as being of most significance to the trainees.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings of this study appear to support the following conclusions:

1. Standardized business communication training materials should be developed and made available to all companies which engage in international business.

2. In those companies where the volume would warrant it, full-time overseas training directors should be appointed.

3. A central network, or clearing house, which include all training materials developed by the 100 largest multi-national United States corporations, should be established. These materials should be made available to all companies.

4. Research is needed to identify clearly the communication skills that are needed in international business communication.

5. Research is needed to determine what skills seem to be common communication concerns of executives who have served in overseas assignments.

6. Universities and colleges should consider establishing separate international business communication courses rather than having them taught as a small unit of a general business communications course.

7. Research is needed to determine what learning strategies are appropriate for employees in international business communications training programs.

8. College and university training programs should include an interdisciplinary approach among business communication, anthropology, and foreign languages.

9. Research is needed to develop an international business communications model that could be the "spring board" for better understanding of various cultures and their ways of doing business.

10. Professional organizations such as the Association for Business Communciation should continue to encourage further research and development of the international business communications area.

11. Training programs should be developed for the family members of of the prospective international employees so they can be acclimated quickly to the new culture.

12. In colleges and universities that have international communications majors, attempts should be made to include the international business communications class as a part of the core requirements.

APPENDIX A

OPINIONNAIRE USED IN THE STUDY

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION TRAINING SURVEY

1. Name ____

2. Job title ____

3. Highest education level: (Check one.)

   ______ Doctorate
   ______ Masters
   ______ Bachelors
   ______ Two years of college
   ______ Less than two years of college

4. College major: (Answer, if applicable.)

   ____________________ Undergraduate

   ____________________ Graduate

5. Name of company: ________________________________

   Address: ____

   ____
   City State Zip Code

6. How many years have you been in your present position? ____

7. Age: (Check one.)

   ______ 65 or over
   ______ 61-65
   ______ 56-60
   ______ 51-55
   ______ 46-50
   ______ 41-45
   ______ 36-40
   ______ 31-35
   ______ 26-30
   ______ 21-25

8. Does your company have a formal program to train employees for overseas assignments? ______ Yes ______ No

   If you answered "No," you do not need to answer any more questions. Please return this instrument in the enclosed postage-paid envelope. If you answered "yes," please continue to answer the remainder of the questions.

9. Approximately how many Americans does your company have working in other countries?

______ 0 - 99
______ 100 - 199
______ 200 - 299
______ 300 - 399
______ 400 - 499
______ 500 - 599
______ 600 - 699
______ 700 - 799
______ 800 - 899
______ 1000 or more

10. How long is your training program?

______ Less than one day
______ One day
______ Two-three days
______ One week
______ Two weeks
______ Three weeks
______ One month
______ Other (Please specify.)

11. Which of the following items are included in your training program? (You may check more than one.)

______ Survival skills
______ Culture differences
______ Culture sensitivity
______ Nonverbal communication
______ Written communication
______ Social organization
______ Political environment
______ Values
______ Technology
______ Religion
______ Education
______ Family relocation
______ Language (oral)
______ Others (Please specify.)

12. What type(s) of individual(s) do you train for overseas assignments? (You may check more than one.)

______ Top managers
______ Mid-managers
______ Supervisory managers
______ Technical specialists
______ General workers
______ Others (Please specify)

13. For which countries do you train workers? (You may check more than one.)

______ Belgium
______ Brazil
______ Canada
______ China
______ England
______ France
______ Germany
______ Philippines
______ Hong Kong
______ India
______ Japan
______ Mexico
______ Poland
______ Russia
______ South Africa
______ Other (Please specify countries.)
____

14. Do you have full-time trainers for international business in your company? ______ Yes ______ No If yes, how many? ______

15. Do you use your own company materials for training?
______ Yes ______ No

IF YOU ANSWERED "YES" TO NO. 15, ANSWER NO. 16. IF YOU ANSWERED "NO" TO NO. 15, GO ON TO NO. 17.

16. Are these materials available to colleges to use in training programs in international business communications?
______ Yes ______ No

If so, what is the name of the publication(s) and the approximate cost? ______________________________
Cost ________

Were these training materials developed by your corporation?
______ Yes ______ No

If you use training materials developed by outside sources, please give the name and addresses for securing copies of these publications.

____

17. Which of the following resources do you use to train your employees? (You may check more than one.)

_____ Private consultants from various countries
_____ Private outside consultants from the U.S.
_____ Your own training materials and/or manuals
_____ College/university personnel
_____ Materials provided by domestic companies
_____ Materials provided by foreign companies
_____ Materials provided by foreign governments
_____ Materials provided by the U.S. government

18. What do you believe is your biggest problem in preparing employees for overseas assignments?

19. Do you hire outside consultants for training your overseas personnel? _____ Yes _____ No

If so, what training materials are used? ____________________

____

Can these be purchased commercially? _____ Yes _____ No

20. What problems do your employees encounter most often when living in a different culture?

SURVIVAL ISSUES
____Climate
____Food and water
____Language
____Clothing
____Housing
____Availability of contact persons
____Transportation
____Money

SOCIAL SUPPORT SYSTEM
____Satisfactory relationships

CONTACT WITH OTHER AMERICAN WORKERS
____Does not learn from the experience of previous American workers

HEALTH PROBLEMS
____Fear of illness
____Actual illness

OUTLETS FOR PERSONAL INTERESTS
____Intellectual
____Recreational

LANGUAGE ABILITY
____Communication with citizens of the host country

PLEASE RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE ENCLOSED POSTAGE-PAID ENVELOPE. THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS SURVEY.

CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION TRAINING IN BUSINESS: A SENSITIZING MODULE

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With many American corporations pinning their hopes for growth on expanding their international markets, sometimes in partnership with foreign firms, more U.S. nationals are being assigned to work in foreign countries than ever before (Lee, 1983) and, unfortunately, many of these American expatriates are failing. One study (Tung, 1981), in fact, found that fully 30% of American expatriate managers were failing in their assignments and that the single most salient reason for these costly failures was the lack of cross cultural understanding. Harvey (1983) concluded that each such failure averaged $100,000 and Copeland (1984) projected the total cost of such failures to American corporations in the billions of dollars each year. In response to this troubling phenomenon, a number of American multi-national corporations have acknowledged the need to train their employees in the development of cross cultural appreciation and communication skills if they are to successfully compete in the international market place. This paper briefly reviews the growing concern for and interest in this problem among U.S. firms, provides a sampling of available cross cultural information and training and offers a beginning sensitizing training module suitable as a general introduction to the concept of culture prior to immersing American business persons and their families in the specific culture in which they will be working and living on assignment from their firms.

Concerns

Authors of many recent articles published in business related professional journals have warned of the perils of and reported the consequences of attempting to do business in foreign markets without providing appropriate cross cultural communication training to affected employees. Adler (1983), for example, found that a hefty 16.4 percent of some 11,219 articles published in twenty-four management journals between 1971 and 1980 addressed cross-cultural management and other cross-cultural issues. Given the widespread attention devoted to the topic in industry publications over the past two decades, it would seem to follow that virtually all U.S. multi-national corporations would be anxiously engaged in providing cross cultural training for their employees scheduled to be deployed overseas. Surprisingly, however, only 8.5 percent of U.S. multi-national corporations provide cross-cultural training, according to Lee.

As noted above, the cost to American business due to cultural ignorance is enormous. To compound the problem, Lee has contended, for example, that U.S. corporations are at an even greater disadvantage vis-a-vis non-U.S. companies and governments in the global marketplace due to an apparent resurgence of national pride among our offshore competitors. Lee contends that when an American working in a foreign country commits a cultural offense, as they are almost certain to do, many local nationals are slow to forgive, if they forgive at all, as a result of their newly felt and newly practiced patriotic nationalism. This is an additional factor, then, which, when added to a variety of other factors, has contributed to the necessity of American companies being forced to recall or even dismiss anywhere from 10-40 percent of their expatriates as unable to adapt to the foreign posting. Research suggests that neglecting cross cultural training is more often than not the culprit. By way of comparison, culturally aware Japanese companies, with their highly developed and comprehensive training programs complete with emphasis on host country language proficiency, experience an overall failure rate of only 10 percent (Murray & Murray, 1986). Further, when the apparent growing popularity of joint ventures between U.S. and foreign firms is factored into this cross cultural business equation, it becomes abundantly clear that American success in these ventures will depend greatly upon the ability of American workers to readily adapt to the dynamics of living and working in a culture often overwhelmingly different from their own (Copeland, 1985). Therefore, aside from the costs accrued from training and posting expenses, American corporations stand to lose additional billions if they are unable to successfully join with offshore firms in co-ventures due, at least in part, to their dearth of cross culturally trained employees.

Personnel Decisions

Other cross cultural research addresses the question of how American companies make personnel decisions on foreign postings. Such literature suggests that past performance and technical skills are the top two decision making criteria most often employed by American corporations in selecting employees for overseas assignment, yet these criteria are not listed among the top five reasons identified as contributing to the failure of American business persons overseas (Hixon, 1986). Rather, the two most often cited reasons for expatriate failure are a manager's inability to adjust to cultural differences and spouse inability to adjust to the new culture. Most cross cultural training researchers and advocates strongly urge that the cultural dimension be carefully considered in all personnel decisions relating to foreign postings. In addition, Harvey (1985), after examining the failure rate of American expatriates specifically in relation to family considerations, recommended that spouses and other family members participate in cross cultural training along with the employee.

Available Cross Cultural Training

The most readily available cross cultural information is found in articles and books designed to provide the reader with cultural basics. Two books in this category, for example, are European Customs and Manners by Braganti and Devine (1984) and Do's and Taboos Around the World by Axtell (1986). Recent articles on this subject include Snowdon (1986), White (1986), Streitfeld (1986), Spruell (1985), Copeland (1984), and Hawkins (1983). Typically such authors provide enough information for the reader to realize that there are significant cultural differences that need to be considered when doing business outside the United States, but they hasten to add that a "one shot" introduction to the concept is not sufficient to secure success and sources are referenced where additional information can be obtained.

Other writers advocate specific components which they argue should be included in cross cultural training programs. For example, Stull, (1983), proposes a program which includes a strong emphasis on communication skills development as well as information on a specific culture. Similarly, Copeland (1986) instructs on program development and argues for culture specific training rather than a wide spectrum program. Muniz and Chasnoff (1983) provide a design wherein a cultural awareness hierarchy of six levels, beginning with knowledge of self and ending with understanding of another culture, is proposed. Wigglesworth (1983) stresses the need for perceptual training while Ivey (1980) concludes that success in cross cultural relationships depends on training in the communication skills of the trainee's own culture. In Aranda's (1986) survey of 103 businesses engaged in world trade, it was determined that the majority of surveyed firms were more willing to support a skills based cross cultural training program rather than one which was predominantly theory based. Apparently perceiving this preference, Harvey (1983) proposed a cross-cultural training cooperative that was skill based and included short term, intermediate term and long term objectives. Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) developed a taxonomy of expatriate acculturation profiles in an effort to identify the specific needs of the personality type so that, if needed, remedial measures could be designed and undertaken. Though there has been considerable debate over the culture/general approach versus the culture/specific approach (Brislin & Pedersen, 1976; Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983; and Jones, 1979, for example), sometimes also called the etic versus the emic standpoint (Pike, 1966), little empirical data exists to establish one approach as superior to the other (Broome, 1986).

Other helpful articles describe extant training programs and resources. For example, Cushing (1981) cites the Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research (SIETAR) as the largest cross cultural training organization and reports that SIETAR provides conference packages, a certification program for trainers, a data bank of cultural information and available trainers as well as a journal for its 1,500 members. Also cited is the International division of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) which acts as a clearing house for information on international training issues, publishes a newsletter devoted to international training and also makes referrals to qualified training personnel. Two other groups noted by Cushing are the International Society for Organization and Development at George Washington University and the International Consultants Foundation which are both active in providing training programs and consultation. If rental or purchase of video tapes is appealing to corporate trainers, "Going International" by Copeland Griggs Productions is noted as representative of a number of helpful supplements to in-house programs. These programs generally include units on cultural anthropology, exploring specific business problems which may arise, problems with moving a family overseas and the problems of reentering American life after the offshore assignment is completed. In addition to these and other institution and private for profit programs, there are, of course, many hundreds of individual academics and other consultants who provide their own training programs in accordance with the needs and preferences of their clients.

Other Nation Preparation of Business Expatriates

Tung (1982) surveyed 300 American firms listed in the Directory of American Firms Operating Abroad as well as 246 Western European multi-nationals and 110 Japanese multi-nationals listed in the Directory of the 500 Largest Industrial Companies Abroad to ascertain training provided to expatriates of such corporations. It was discovered that Western Europe trains 68% of its personnel, Japan trains 57% and the United States trains 32% of its expatriates in cross cultural issues. Though Tung found a higher incidence of American firms sponsoring cross cultural training for their employees than did Lee (1983), as reported earlier, the fact remains that U.S. firms still lag far behind their offshore competitors in providing such training to their employees. The Western European training most usually involved language training, information on the history, geography, climate, housing and schools as well as a cultural orientation to the host country. The Japanese programs were similar in that they commonly included language training, cultural orientation and provided information on the history, geography, climate, housing and schools of the host nation. In addition, it is interesting to note that the Japanese provided a program that employed simulated intercultural encounters and sensitivity training. Tung concluded that the more rigorous the cross cultural training, the lower incidence of failure realized.

Closer to home, Bogorya (1985) noted that Canadian universities, like the Japanese programs, rely on a series of cultural simulations with heavy emphasis on cross cultural communication skills development for students enrolled in international business programs. Other successful programs include business schools in the United Kingdom and other Western European countries which work closely with multi-national corporations to provide research and training for specific firms' cross cultural training needs (Eales, 1985). By comparison, a startling finding that only 39 percent of American business schools offer courses in international business is disturbing (Copeland, 1984) especially when it follows that an even smaller percentage of American business schools would offer courses in cross cultural sensitization, understanding and intercultural communication skills development for their students. Here, unfortunately, is an instance of industry and academe being in lock-step to the detriment of American business.

Success Through Training

More research is needed to gauge the success of those U.S. firms which have chosen to invest in cross cultural training for their employees. However, Kodak, DuPont and Procter and Gamble may be representative of enlightened American multi-nationals which have committed significant resources to recent cross cultural training for their Japan bound employees. Interestingly, all three firms have realized recent profit enhancements in their overseas operations and have attributed at least some of the increase to the cross cultural training afforded their workers (Berger, 1987).

An earlier study conducted by the London Business School and French INSEAD school is in harmony with the recent American experience reported above in that it was found that graduates who had been in the multi-national field for more than three years and who had taken cross cultural training were more successful than their peers who had not participated in such training (Ratiu, 1983). In addition, Mogi (1985) concluded that Japanese investment in cross cultural training for their expatriates was one of the reasons for the success of so many of their multi-national corporations.

It is clear that the American business establishment is generally aware of the increased potential for failure abroad should they fail to cross culturally train their employees. However, despite the availability of many programs, it appears that American multi-national corporations taking advantage of them are still, surprisingly and puzzlingly, in the minority. That more corporations are not taking the lead in training their expatriates cross culturally is difficult to fathom given the substantial published research establishing the apparent fact that companies which provide cross cultural training have less expatriate failure and may even be more financially successful in their offshore operations.

A Sensitizing Module

Wondering if some companies and interested individuals are simply overwhelmed by the prospect of commencing such training, we offer here to trainers, academics and other consultants a rather simple five phase cross cultural communication training module. This approach is purposely broad based or etic in nature in an effort to alert participants to their own concept of culture and to engender awareness of and appreciation for cultural diversity. The principles and activities suggested here have been successfully offered in college and university intercultural communication, speech and multi-cultural education courses, among others, as well as in a variety of consulting style programs designed to prepare students and workers to better appreciate the cultural aspect in human relations preparatory to host country specific cultural immersion. The suggested phases, depending on corporation ~~needs and~~ preferences, may be offered in an intensified one day encounter or spread out over several presentations. Once the module is completed, then cross cultural training focused on specific host countries can be provided to employees and their families assigned to those locales. Such culture specific training should then be that much more meaningful and useful to the newly culturally aware business student, corporate employee or family member.

Phase 1- The training module commences with the facilitator introducing the concepts of culture, subculture, and subgroup (Samovar, Porter & Jain, 1981) and leading a discussion of their implications in international business and/or other contexts. Module participants are then assigned to dyads and asked to exchange information relative to actual situations they may have experienced which caused them to feel like "outsiders" due, perhaps, to their language abilities or accent, religion, lifestyles, race, ethnic backgrounds, political philosophies, athletic abilities, gender, educational levels, appearance or clothing, birthplace, age, and the like. Dyadic partners should keep notes of this interaction so that overt signs contributing to the "outsider" experience during the recounted situations like artifacts, nonverbal behaviors, communication styles and so forth are identified. (Suggested time: one hour)

Phase 2- This phase provides for a probing of participant memberships in so called subcultures and subgroups. To heighten participant awareness in this regard as well as to aid participants in developing an understanding of the possibly unique interpersonal dynamics operating between culturally diverse peoples, the following activity is recommended: Participants are asked to create a twenty to thirty item self-profile inventory which might include such self-descriptors as age, gender, religion, ethnic group, race, national heritage, occupation or occupational goal, job title, marital status, political persuasion, educational level, and other telling adjectives. Participants are then assigned to dyads a second time, but this time according to at least three obviously diverse characteristics revealed by the self inventory such as age, gender and race, for example. Dyad partners are then instructed to interview each other to discover issues upon which they have substantial disagreement or dichotomous orientations such as religion, separation of church and state, political persuasion or candidates, opinions on abortion, the need for a nuclear deterrent or nuclear power plants, other environmental issues, etc. These topics of controversy or disagreement are recorded by the participants for use in Phase 3. (Suggested time: one to one-and-a half hours)

Phase 3- Moving from the two-person or dyadic interpersonal communication context to small group interaction, this phase utilizes the content (topics of disagreement) from phase 2 in an effort to develop an appreciation in participants for the inherent, though not insurmountable, barriers associated with communicating across differences or even cultures. Dyads from phase 2 are combined to form groups of from four to eight members. Each small group or team is then asked to discuss how common or shared characteristics among culturally diverse persons might be emphasized in gaining an understanding of and, eventually, an appreciation and respect for differences.

Common characteristics which might be focused on could include similarities in work experiences, age, gender, ethnicity, hobbies, religion, leisure reading preferences, marital status and family experiences or shared values and outlooks on life, for example. The facilitator focuses the activity on the implications of societal perception of individuals or groups who may be from distinctly different cultural backgrounds than the dominant white and middle class American culture (Samovar and Porter, 1982). The end result of this activity could be a team generated short story, guest editorial or letter to the editor for submission to a corporate newsletter or perhaps even a campus, community or trade publication. Ideally, the piece should be written with the intent to foster greater understanding and acceptance of cultural diversity. Involvement in the writing process has the added benefits of helping participants verbalize their feelings and couch their beliefs in persuasive form thus strengthening their own, perhaps new found, beliefs. (Suggested time: One to two hours)

Phase 4 - This phase is devoted to a cross-cultural simulation as suggested by the successful Japanese and Canadian programs noted above. Our experience has taught us the value of simulations like Cultural Contact (Glazier, 1976), or BaFa BaFa (Shirts), for instance, in teaching cultural diversity experientially. These kinds of simulations typically divide participants into two significantly diverse "cultures." Each culture has its own set of distinctive customs, behaviors, taboos, history, political system, technology, economic system, language and so forth, which are not known, initially, to the other culture. One culture is usually more "developed" than the other and each culture is charged with a goal to accomplish requiring its members to interact quite closely with members of the other culture. As would be expected, there are many frustrating experiences along the interaction process trail as participants learn what it can be like to find themselves forced to interact with people from a radically different culture. Participants readily make the connection between the simulation and feelings and behaviors manifested by foreign visitors to our shores and to what their feelings may very well be like upon their arrival in the host nation. The resulting empathetic feelings are generally quite useful to participants in dealing with those from other cultures. Other cross cultural games and simulations are readily available. See, for example, Newmark and Asante's *Intercultural Communication* (1976) for other ideas. (Suggested time: one and one half to three hours)

Phase 5 - The final phase provides for a debriefing of the cross-cultural simulation and should ultimately focus on the concepts of culture, cultural diversity, cultural awareness, and cross cultural communication. In modules graced by personnel who have traveled or worked abroad, these participants should be encouraged to share previous cross-cultural experiences with the group. Ideally, the cross-cultural communication training module will alow them to review those experiences with much greater insight. If the shared experience happened to be negative, perhaps their new understanding will allow them to suggest ways to avoid such an outcome in the future. If positive, the participant should be encouraged to analyze the experience and suggest possible reasons for the positive nature of the interaction. In other words, what was done right? It has been our experience that in virtually all cases, the suggested module will have begun to sensitize participants to the importance of own-culture awareness, other-culture awareness, understanding and appreciation as well as the need to develop communication skills such as listening, empathy and attendance to nonverbal signals, for example, required for productive cross-cultural interactions. If time permits, one or more cases from Samovar and Porter's Intercultural Communication: A Reader (1982) could be discussed to start preparing participants for consideration of specific cultures. (Suggested time: one to two hours)

We must re-emphasize that the suggested module is a general wide spectrum introduction to and beginning sensitizing experience in cross-cultural awareness and communication. Once trainers feel that participants are sufficiently culturally sensitized in the broad sense, arrangements may then be made to provide host country specific cross cultural training when employees actually receive their overseas assignments. We can all but guarantee that participants culturally sensitized by the suggested module will gain much more from the more specific training in the particular cultures where the corporation has plans to base their employees.

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The Language of Bias in Intercultural Business Communication

A Paper Presented

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by

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Business communicators, when faced with the need to communicate across cultures must be adequately prepared to do so using bias-free language. When speaking, writing, and responding to/with others, especially those from cultures different from their own, they sometimes intentionally or unintentionally use biased language that causes adverse reactions. Such language may be specific words or phrases which categorize and rank nations around the globe; it may be value-laden terms used to generalize or stereotype persons belonging to certain racial or ethnic groups. More specifically, biased language is any language form isolating an individual's nature or the nature of a group of individuals based on their race, ethnic group for country of origin.

Ethnocentric thought and behavior promote biased language. Sumner asserts this fact in his classic essay (1906). The dominant group regards itself as superior and virtuous, but views the subordinate group as contemptible and inferior.

Countries like India, Brazil, Nigeria, Ghana, and Nicaragua, once known as underdeveloped nations, are today called third world nations. Is this appellation enough to cover countries as diverse as these? Noted author V. S. Naipaul remarks that applying this term to these countries is like saying that all Chinese look alike. Well-known economist Thomas Sowell points out that "The Third World" as a concept is a vague and inconsistent definition--lumping together countries that are highly disparate in economic, cultural, political, racial and ethnic terms. One rarely hears the terms first and second world used, but the term the Fourth World has cropped up to describe the poorest nations like Haiti and Jamaica. Poverty is supposed to be the defining characteristic of the Third World, but some whole countries in the Third World are far from poor, with standards of living closer to those of Western Europe than to those of other Third World nations.

Labels, long a source of distortion, unfairly characterize inhabitants of many developing nations and inaccurately describe places within these countries. Calling an African, an East Indian, or a Brazilian a native conjures up an image of a savage or wild person. Although *native* may mean "one who is born in a place or" an original inhabitant the term has a long-standing history of being associated with primitiveness. Think of the contrast between saying native New Yorker versus saying a native from Ecuador or Australia. *Jungle* and *bush* convey savagery when one truly means savannus, grassland, or lush. *Tribe* or *tribal* perjoratively connote images of inferiority. A more specific term is ethnic group. Thus, the language a dominant culture uses when speaking of a group considered inferior reveals a glimpse into its attitudes toward that group.

Also, stereotypes often justify and reinforce prejudice. If one has a stereotyped view of a nationality, it can result in prejudice toward that group. If one is prejudiced one can either create or find stereotypes justifying one's attitudes. Since stereotypes often guide our behavior, we need to understand what they are and how they are perpetuated.

Stereotypes are evolving: many of them change over time.

What were stereotypes yesterday may no longer be ones today. They are often a function of political, economic, and social developments. For example, when the United States had good relations with China and Japan, stereotypes in this country tended to be positive; when the relations worsen, the stereotypes tended to be negative.

For one to truly understand stereotypes, let's examine some existing stereotypes about various ethnic groups. Jewish people are portrayed as greedy, money hungry people who are very shrewd businesspersons. Polish people are thought of as "dumb Polacks," and within America, there are thousands of jokes which confirm this stereotype. Latin American men are identified as possessing machismo, or sexual aggressiveness with women. Puerto Ricans are all on welfare. Italians all talk with their hands and belong to the mafia. Chinese are quiet and polite and are conveyed as laundry workers. Take the ad for a popular laundry detergent which shows a Chinese person who claims to be able to clean clothes better than other people because of an "ancient Chinese secret." American Blacks are considered lazy, stupid, and musically gifted. Many negative stereotypes are associated with this group both here and abroad. In Brazil, a proverb says that "Work is for Negroes and dogs." The work referred to in the proverb is manual labor. A parallel saying or slur exists in the American south which says that someone working hard is "working like a nigger." Certainly, ethnic slurs, jokes, and proverbs continually perpetuate negative images of persons from various ethnic groups. Whether it's Jesse Jackson calling Jewish people "hymies" or White House officials calling Arabs "sandniggers", ethnic slurs, jokes, or labels should not be used. As educators of potential intercultural business communicators, we must work diligently to create language consciousness and sensitivity in our students.

A first important step to accomplish this awareness and sensitivity is to have our students listen for examples of biased language used in their classrooms by their professors and peers and used in television programs or newscasts. Have them carefully read their texts, newspapers, and trade journals for examples of prejudiced language. They may record these in journals and center class discussion on these phrases, labels, and jokes.

They must also learn about people from other cultures by reading about them in literature that does not promote the Euro-centric view, but which gives an insight into the worldview of their respective cultures.

Once students are aware of their own words and the words of others around them, they can begin to move toward bias-free intercultural dialogue.

Intercultural Business Communication:
The Nonverbal Dimension

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Effective communication is essential in business, particularly in transactions involving individuals with different cultural backgrounds. Such disparate backgrounds may entail not only different languages, but also different values, beliefs, assumptions, and attitudes. All of these concepts affect the communication patterns within cultures and in turn are affected by these communication patterns. This interdependency between culture and communication must be recognized and addressed if successful business transactions are to take place. It is imperative that one be able to accurately interpret the communication of someone from a different cultural background. This involves more than simply learning their language or using an interpreter. One cannot ignore the other channels of communication.

The Importance of Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication can be loosely defined as the process of sending messages through any channel of communication other than words. Categories of nonverbal communication will be presented in greater detail in the following pages. However, it will first be helpful to examine evidence showing that nonverbal communication is an essential part of the overall communication process and is inseparable from it. Indeed, some research indicates that nonverbal communication may convey even more meaning than words. Mehrabian (1981) discusses research which shows that as much as 93% of the meaning in a message may be conveyed through nonverbal cues, with only 7% due to words. Leathers (1976) & Knapp (1978) report on other research with similar results. Birdwhistell (1970) also states that in a social interaction or conversation the majority of meaning is conveyed through the nonverbal channels. It appears, therefore, that nonverbal communication may be of more importance in the typical business transaction than most people realize.

Nonverbal communication is also important in expressing emotions and feelings. Davitz (1964) feels that emotions are conveyed primarily through nonverbal means. Furthermore, nonverbal cues are a stable, reliable measure of emotions. Nonverbal communication can provide information about the emotional state of the communicator as well as the degree of sensitivity of the recipient of the message.

One of the most important reasons for increasing one's knowledge and awareness of nonverbal communication is that this form of communication is generally seen as more honest and trustworthy. Verbal communication seems to be easier to manipulate and distort while nonverbal communication is viewed as being freer of distortion or deception. Leathers (1976) reports of an experiment in which subjects were exposed to a message from a confederate of the experimenter. The message consisted of a verbal statement accompanied by a nonverbal behavior which contradicted the verbal statement. The subjects almost always thought the nonverbal channel expressed the true meaning. In an intercultural business transaction in which the participants are less than totally familiar with the language of the other, this finding may be extremely important. In this context, the nonverbal channels of communication may take on even more importance. The lack of familiarity with the words spoken may cause the participants to focus even more on the nonverbal behaviors.

Finally, nonverbal communication may be seen as a more efficient means of conveying messages. An action may indeed speak louder than words. A handshake may express a feeling of sincerity more than words could. Time is often short and limited in business transactions. Tight schedules, a multitude of appointments may bring about a need to accurately express and interpret messages quickly and efficiently. Nonverbal communication, therefore, is an important aspect of the overall communication process, perhaps the most important. It certainly cannot be ignored by anyone who is interested in communicating effectively. And, since successful business transactions rarely take place without effective communication, the study of nonverbal communication is essential in business as well.

However, in a cross-cultural business context, a confounding factor arises. While nonverbal communication plays an important part in all cultures, the meanings of specific behaviors vary from one culture to another. Just as it is important to learn the language of another culture, it is also important to learn to correctly interpret the nonverbal behaviors of the members of that culture. The cultural background of the communicator plays a part in the interpretation of nonverbal communication.

Categories of Nonverbal Communication

The remaining sections of this article will describe in greater detail the major categories of nonverbal communication. Each category will be defined and the behaviors within that category described and their communicative potential discussed. In addition, some examples of cultural variations for each category will also be included. Because of space limitations, it is impossible to include a discussion of each possible behavior and its meaning within every existing culture. Examples will point out possible differences that may be encountered in an intercultural business interaction. A reader who is interested in one particular culture will want to undertake a more intensive study of that culture. The examples that follow are meant to raise one's awareness of the importance of nonverbal communication and to point out the need to take into account the cultural background of the communicator when interpreting such behaviors. If one were not aware of such factors serious misunderstandings could occur. Such misunderstandings could then make it difficult for a successful business transaction to take place.

Kinesics

Kinesics is the study of movements and the meanings conveyed by such movements in an interpersonal encounter. Gestures, facial expressions, and posture are three of the major components of kinesics. We make use of these components everyday, yet seldom are consciously aware of their communicative potential.

Ekman & Friesen (1969) categorize movements and gestures into five categories. Emblems are those nonverbal gestures which have a specific meaning within a culture. Examples in our culture are the peace sign or the hitchhiker's thumb. Illustrators are those nonverbal behaviors which accompany speech and are used to illustrate what is being said. Almost everyone uses gestures and hand movements when speaking and it is very difficult to speak without doing this. Regulators are nonverbal behaviors which serve to regulate an interaction between people. Knapp (1978) presents a thorough discussion of "turn-taking" cues. These cues signal a desire to initiate or terminate a conversation with another. Affect displays are nonverbal behaviors which give information about the emotional states of the person who gives off such displays. These are often facial expressions such as smiles or frowns but can also include gestures and other body movements. Adaptors are unintentional nonverbal behaviors and often occur as a response to a stress-producing situation. For example, one who is nervous while giving a speech may rub his arm or play with a pencil.

Much research has been conducted on the communicative potential of kinesics. For example, Ekman, Friesen & Ellsworth (1972) studied the role of facial expression in communicating emotions. Norton & Nussbaum (1980) found that the nonverbal behaviors of teachers can affect their students' perception of the effectiveness of those teachers. Mehrabian (1981) presents evidence that kinesic behaviors can influence the degree of liking one person has towards another. However, as was noted earlier, even though such behaviors are an important aspect of every culture, the meanings of such behaviors may vary from one culture to another.

Probably the most obvious cultural difference within this category of nonverbal communication is the use of the bow in many Asian cultures. GudyKunst & Kim (1984) describe the proper method of bowing and discuss how this act is affected by the relative status between the individuals involved. Johnson, Ekman, & Friesen (1975) point out many emblems that have specific meaning within a culture and how these meanings may vary. For example, the OK sign in our culture can be interpreted as an obscene gesture in another culture. Richmond, McCroskey & Payne (1987) state that when a Japanese person nods his head in response to a statement, it may not necessarily indicate agreement. It may simply mean that he has heard what has been said and is continuing to pay attention. GudyKunst & Kim (1984) report that often Asians will smile even when upset. And members of Asian cultures will also often attempt to conceal, rather than reveal, their true emotions, particularly negative emotions. The desire to maintain harmony among the group often takes precedence over the expression of individual negative emotions. Klopf & Park (1982) also report similar fixed and rigid facial expressions in some Asian cultures, particularly in public settings or when meeting new people. Cambra & Klopf (1979) report that downcast eyes in the Japanese culture often does not indicate rejection but can indicate agreement or even attentiveness.

As was noted earlier, it is impossible to discuss the meaning of every behavior in every culture, but the examples given here may help the reader to be more aware of the cultural differences in nonverbal communication and of the need to take these differences into account in any business transactions. Doing so may help to minimize misunderstandings and thereby contribute to the success of the transaction.

Proxemics

Proxemics is the study of how people perceive the space around them and how that space can be used to communicate. Hall (1963, 1966) has provided a way to categorize personal space. The intimate zone is less than 18 inches and is reserved for close friends and family members and is used for the exchange of personal or intimate messages. The personal zone ranges from 18 inches to about four feet and is used for such things as conversations with friends. The social zone ranges from four to eight feet and is used for such things as business transactions or interactions with strangers. The public zone is beyond eight feet. We rarely consciously think about these zones of personal space, yet we immediately feel uncomfortable if someone violates our space or if a stranger comes too close. In crowded elevators or buses, for example, the violation of this personal space may upset many people.

However, the amount of personal space that is considered appropriate varies from one culture to another. A distance that is appropriate in one culture may be considered too close and annoying in another. Hall (1959) reports that in Latin American cultures the distance for interaction between people is much less than it is in our culture. Therefore, when two people from these cultures interact, it is possible that the Latin American will want to move closer in order to achieve a distance that feels comfortable to her. The individual from the United States may perceive this as a somewhat aggressive behavior and back up to increase the distance. This may cause the Latin American to think her partner is withdrawn or unfriendly. Being unaware of such cultural differences can quickly cause such misunderstandings. Shuter (1976) investigated such Latin American cultures more thoroughly and found that there is a difference in terms of norms for personal space. People in a Central American culture interacted at closer distances than those in a South American culture. GudyKunst & Kim (1984) report that in Arab cultures the distance between communicators is often so small that there is a great deal of touching in a typical interaction. Shuter (1977) also found differences in proxemic norms in European cultures. His research indicates that German men prefer greater distances when interacting, while Italian men prefer closer distances. Smith (1981) found differences in norms for personal space between German and French cultures. It is important to understand that the proxemic norms of another culture may be different than your own. This understanding may be a contributory factor to a successful intercultural business transaction.

Haptics

Haptics is the study of touch and the communicative functions of touch. Many researchers have found that touch is an essential aspect in the healthy development of animals, including humans. Harlow et al. (1966) found that baby monkeys required touch in order to develop into normal adults. Hollender (1970) reports that a lack of touch early in life can cause emotional and psychiatric problems in later life. Knapp (1980) states that touch is probably the most basic form of communication. Mehrabian (1981) contends that touch can be a signal of liking and acceptance.

The norms for appropriate touch vary between cultures and a lack of awareness pertaining to those norms can cause misunderstandings. Research by Jourard (1966) helped in the understanding of norms for touch in our own culture. Other researchers (Montagu, 1971; Henley, 1977) found that these norms may be affected by gender, status, or the social situation. LaBarre (1976) reports that "contact cultures" are those in which there is a greater amount of touching. Such cultures include the Arabic, Latin American, Jewish, and Southern European. In these cultures, for example, touch may be an important aspect of greeting another. An embrace or slap on the back may be the norm. While our North American culture is usually regarded as a relatively non-contact culture, Barnlund (1975) found that individuals in our culture touch more than do the Japanese. Shuter (1976) found that there is variability for norms of touch within the Latin American culture. He found greater frequency of touching in Central American countries than in South American.

Since touch involves moving into the most intimate zone of personal space, it is essential that one knows the cultural norms governing when and where it is appropriate. Interacting with someone from a culture with different norms could create misunderstandings. One person might be perceived as too aggressive while the other might be viewed as too reserved. An awareness of these cultural differences may help to prevent such misunderstandings.

Chronemics

Chronemics is the study of how people perceive and use time and the communicative potential of time. All communication takes place in a temporal context. The North American culture is very time conscious. Most people are aware of schedules and appointments throughout the day. Burgoon & Saine (1978) discuss the importance of time in our culture. However, not all cultures share our perception of the importance of time or view time in the same way we do.

Hall (1976) discusses two cultural time orientations: monochronic and polychronic. In cultures with a monochronic time orientation an emphasis will be put on schedules, punctuality, and dividing work into segments. People in such cultures schedule one thing at a time and, therefore, work on tasks in a sequential manner. The North American culture is monochronic, as are most European cultures.

A polychronic time orientation places less emphasis on scheduling and punctuality. More value is placed on the activities occurring and on the people involved in those activities. Many Latin American cultures are polychronic. It is not unusual in these cultures to find several business transactions taking place simultaneously. Several meetings may be scheduled to take place at the same time. In this time orientation the completion of a transaction is more important than the adherence to a schedule. Therefore, if an important task needs more time to be completed, it would be viewed as normal to delay the next scheduled activities.

A lack of awareness of these temporal norms may create problems. A North American businessman may feel insulted to be kept waiting a long time for an appointment. He may be offended if he is expected to conduct his business in the same room where several other meetings are taking place simultaneously. However, someone from a polychronic culture may find our practices too rigid and may view our hurried pace with suspicion or distrust.

Cultures also differ in their orientations toward the past, present, and future. American society is largely future-oriented. The ideals of working to create a better tomorrow or making the world a better place for one's children are important. Latin American cultures are more present-oriented. Living for the present, enjoying the present moment are important. In contrast, some cultures such as the Chinese have an orientation toward the past. In these cultures ancestor-worship and traditions are important. The lessons of the past may be applied to new situations. Learning about the time orientations of another culture may help bring about more successful interactions. Suggesting that your product or service will help improve the quality of life in the future may mean nothing to someone in a past-oriented culture. In contrast, suggesting a strategy that worked in the past would be inappropriate in a future-oriented culture.

Vocalics

Vocalics is the study of those voice characteristics which accompany spoken words, such as volume, pitch, rate, and tone of voice. Much research exists which shows that these characteristics do communicate a great deal. Trager (1958) is often credited with categorizing these vocal cues. Voice qualities include variables such as pitch, rhythm, articulation control, and rate of speech. Vocalizations include such things as crying, laughter, and giggling.

Addington (1968) found that it is possible to make accurate judgments regarding the personality of a speaker through careful attention to that speaker's vocal cues. Listeners can also accurately determine demographic characteristics of a speaker based on that speaker's vocal cues. For example, Nerbonne (1967) found that listeners could differentiate educational level and Harms (1961) found that listeners could accurately judge socioeconomic status by attention to the vocal cues of a speaker. Vocal cues can also convey information regarding the emotional state of a speaker (Baglan, 1987).

However, cultural norms for vocal cues vary. Hall & Whyte (1979) state that North American males, in a typical business setting, use the voice to convey a serious tone and to suppress emotions, particularly in a very important transaction. By contrast, in Arabic cultures the expression of emotion is encouraged. Men in that culture can feel free to shout or use more expression in their voices. Often the volume of speech will reach levels that are much louder than the typical conversation in the North American culture. It is possible that the North American businessman may perceive the loudness as aggression and find it objectionable. However, the Arabic businessman may feel that the loudness is a sign of strength and sincerity. He may feel that a soft tone of voice implies weakness and may be suspicious of others who speak in that manner. Interestingly, GudyKunst & Kim (1984) report that people in Great Britain and some other European countries often feel that individuals from the United States speak too loudly. Violations of the cultural norms regarding vocal cues are noticed by members of the culture and do affect the formation of impressions regarding the speaker.

One vocal characteristic that is often overlooked, at least in our culture, is silence. The Japanese seem to value silence more than North Americans do. Americans talk faster, talk more, and have fewer pauses than the Japanese. The Japanese prefer conversations to be thoughtful and often use silence to show respect for the other or to indicate thought.

Environmental Factors

There are many aspects of our surroundings which also communicate a great deal to others. Such factors as the clothes we wear, our use of objects, and even the type of architecture we prefer can convey important information to others. For example, Molloy (1975) discussed the role of clothing and its effect in business transactions. Sommer (1974) speaks of ways that communication can be improved by changing the design or architecture of a building.

Environmental factors are used differently from one culture to another and convey different meanings as well. Hall (1966) provides much information regarding cultural differences in the design of architecture. North American houses usually have rooms designed for specific functions while rooms may be multipurpose in Asian homes. In a Japanese home, for example, the same room may be used for entertaining, eating, and sleeping. In a typical Arab home there may be one room set aside for entertaining friends and that may be the only room of the house ever seen by guests. German homes are usually arranged to ensure privacy, with an entry-way that leads visitors to a room set aside for entertaining.

Hall (1959, 1966) also discusses differences in the way cities are designed. In some cultures the pattern of streets creates major intersections which bring activities close together and fosters more communication between people.

Norms for appropriate dress also differ between cultures. In a recent study, Ericksen & Kaigler-Walker (1987) examined the differences in clothing norms between North American and Mexican cultures. Results showed that members of these cultures did not attribute the same meaning to the use of clothing in all situations. Thus, one who was dressed appropriately for a business meeting in her own culture may be perceived as inappropriately dressed for a meeting in another culture.

Summary

Nonverbal communication is an integral aspect of human interactions. It is inseparable from the total process of communication. Many reasons were given earlier to point out its importance and to encourage the reader to become more aware of its impact. Categories of nonverbal communication have been discussed. While there are a few nonverbal behaviors that seem to have a universal meaning, the meanings of all others vary from one culture to another. For this reason, some cultural variations in meanings of nonverbal behaviors were presented. However, there are some important factors to remember when discussing such cultural variations. One must avoid over-generalizations about any culture. Each individual within a culture may not exhibit all the norms of that culture. There may be subcultures within any culture that have their own norms. It is also important to realize that cultures do change over time. The changes may be slow, often almost imperceptible, but cultural values and norms can change. It is also important to keep in mind that it is impossible to discuss in this article the meaning of every conceivable behavior in every existing culture. The reader who has an interest in one particular culture is encouraged to study that culture in a more thorough manner than could be undertaken here. Finally, it is important to remember that even though there are differences between cultures, there are also many similarities. People of all cultures have similar needs. There are human cognitive processes that appear to be universal throughout all cultures. For example, the development of a language and the tendency to categorize objects and people is present in all cultures. The need for interpersonal contact appears to be universal and is met through family structure or joining other groups. The use of nonverbal channels of communication is also universal. The reader who is aware of the importance of these nonverbal channels of communication and is also aware of their culture variations may be more effective in intercultural interactions.

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TITLE: Linguistic Directness and Indirectness in Business Interactions in Japan

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PAPER PROPOSAL
FOR
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TITLE: Linguistic Directness and Indirectness in Business Interactions in Japan

LENGTH OF PRESENTATION: 20 minutes (Videotaped data will be used if VHS equipment is available.)

PRIMARY AUDIENCE: Business Educators and those interested in Intercultural Communication.

SUMMARY:

The purpose of this study is to identify some of the business situations in which either directness or indirectness is expected by Japanese and American co-workers. It is hypothesized that social relationship of participants and cultural assumptions about the nature of particular events (such as "business meetings") will determine relative directness for each group.

This study is based on ethnographic and videotaped data from naturally occurring business interactions in Tokyo, Japan. Businesses with both Japanese and American employees working together in the same office were selected for observation and recording.

It is found that, contrary to widely accepted stereotypes that characterize Americans as always forthright and clear, and Japanese as usually ambiguous and indefinate, both directness and indirectness are appropriate behavior for each group. It is suggested that differences in when relative directness is appropriate is the basis for these popular stereotypes.

V. BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL ENGLISH FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

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TEACHING ENGLISH FOR THE PROFESSIONS: ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN ESL UNDERGRADUATE COMPOSITION COURSES

by

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Teaching English for the Professions: English for Specific Purposes in ESL Undergraduate Composition Courses

by
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Abstract

This paper deals with the rationale for modifying existing general ESL composition courses with more specialized English for Specific Purposes (ESP) curricular components. The limitations of the Free, Controlled, Semi-Controlled, and Neo-Aristotelian composition approaches are discussed, and modification to existing ESP curriculum design models is presented.

In both teaching and research I have investigated various approaches to teaching non-native students to communicate in English more clearly and effectively. Like most ESL (English as a Second Language) composition teachers, however, I have never been entirely satisfied with the effectiveness of any of these proposed approaches in terms of how they can help my undergraduate ESL students succeed in the academic and professional world.

These students fall into two categories: those who attend a university in the United States of America to gain the academic skills necessary to aid their native countries after graduation, and those who want to gain the necessary academic skills to take their place in the American workforce after graduation. My intuition told me that the most commonly used ESL composition approaches were inadequate in helping these students succeed in their academic and future careers, and I felt that a modified English for Specific Purposes approach would be more helpful to these students in this linguistically-specialized environment.

Consistently over the past twenty years there have been four general ESL composition approaches used at various levels of student proficiency, and sometimes in combination, in American universities. They are the Free, the Controlled, the Semi-Controlled, and the Neo-Aristotelian composition approaches. However, many TESOL teachers and researchers are beginning to call for a more pragmatic approach to teaching writing, and other communication skills, in order to more effectively prepare our ESL students for their academic and professional careers. This paper discusses this call for change and offers an example of a new, more pragmatic, course.

The Free Composition Approach

Erazmus has described the Free composition approach as a "program of fluency that pushes and motivates the students to produce extensively with little regard to the number and types of errors and infelicities" (27). This approach calls for the students to write quickly with little or no time scheduled for revision and editing because as Erazmus notes, "it is more important to have the student produce large quantities of materials than to produce perfect copy" (28). He further clarifies the theory underlying this approach by stating that

> Every new use by a student of a vocabulary item, a variation in syntactic sequence, or a different structural combination is an enrichment of his language control of a new range of morphemes and their distribution. This is worth the errors that he makes. The next time he goes over similar territory he will do do so with greater security and ease with fewer mistakes. (29)

In general, the Free composition approach entails producing a great deal of writing on the student's part, and a great deal of correction on the teacher's. Note Smalley and Hank's Free writing exercise:

> When you first came to the United States, were you surprised by anything? Can you think of examples? Did you find anything particularly difficult to adjust to? Can you think of examples? Choose one of these topics and support it with examples.

One can see that when students are asked to write in this approach, there is no mention of audience needs and little revision time given to the assignment. Thus, when this is the only approach being used in the ESL classroom, the writing process is not being taught effectively. Furthermore, the production of large quantities of rapid unrevised writing was attacked from the outset of its introduction. Dressel et al. and Hunting were among the many researchers to realize that student writers would not learn to write merely by writing and that frequent writing without instruction might even be detrimental.

The Controlled Composition Approach

Pincas has described the Controlled composition approach as ideal "because it conforms to the expressed ideals of scientific habit-forming teaching methods which strive to prevent error from occurring" (186). In this approach the ESL students are "controlled" in that they can create no new ideas while writing. Instead, the students are only given the opportunity to make exact copies of, or construct simple to multiple substitutions on, pieces of English discourse. Usually the "control" in this approach is complete in that even the substitutions have already been selected for the students. Spencer provides a good example of the pre-selected substitutions when he asks ESL students to modify the given text by using one word from each list below it:

> A (1) man (2) walked (3) down the street. A (4) girl (5) was waiting for him outside a (6) shop. As he approached her, she smiled (7) and said, "Hello. How are you?"
>
> (1) tall, young, well-dressed
> (2) with a beard, in a black hat, with sun glasses
> (3) rapidly, hurriedly, impatiently
> (4) pretty, fair-haired, dark skinned
> (5) in high-heeled shoes, with an umbrella, in a hat
> (6) Chemist's, grocer's, bicycle
> (7) pleasantly, attractively, in a friendly manner
> (158)

The Semi-Controlled Composition Approach

The Semi-Controlled composition approach in American universities can be divided into two different types of control: grammatically-based control and topic-based control.

In the grammatically-based Semi-Controlled approach the ESL students may be asked to make grammatical changes such as gender, tense, or voice of the verbs to a piece of discourse. In this approach the students are taught a particular grammatical form and, in order to reinforce the learning of this form, they must write or revise various sentences in a discourse using this form. Robinson gives a good example of this grammatically-based Semi-Controlled approach:

> DIRECTIONS: Change the following paragraphs of questions into paragraphs of statements. Note that the progressive present tense in this exercise expresses action taking place wholly in the future. As you write, substitute some ideas of your own for those in the exercise, but stay in the progressive present tense for the sake of concentrated practice. (Guided 75)

This approach differs from the Controlled approach in that new ideas can be introduced into the discourse by the students when modifying the initial piece. The theory behind the grammatically-based approach is that students will have a solid understanding of the grammatical form once they have used it in a variety of ways in any given written discourse. It also emphasizes the importance of grammatical form in writing and in the context of discourse.

In the topic-based Semi-Controlled approach to ESL composition, the students are given more freedom than in the other approaches. In this approach, ESL students are given either a combination of pictorial control and a written model, or semi-controlled exercises where content and ideas are suggested. The students are allowed to create their own discourse by following models or answering questions given to them. However, they do not receive instruction explaining rhetorical patterns or any other aspect of the writing process. Ross and Doty provide a good example of a topic-based Semi-Controlled writing assignment:

> Model Passage: To know a person's language is to understand his culture, for language grows out of and and reflects culture. The Tzeltal tribe in Mexico, for instance, has twenty-five different words for expressing the idea 'to carry.' Tzeltal speakers can indicate by one word each of these concepts: carrying on the shoulder, carrying on the head, carrying in the palm of the hand, or carrying in a container.
> Writing Assignment: Following the model in the preceding exercise, write a composition in which you show how knowing your native language helps a person understand your culture. (144)

The Controlled and Semi-Controlled approaches have one unifying principle. According to Raimes, the degree of control used in the classroom is subservient to the belief that "the use of language is the manipulation of fixed patterns which are learned by imitation, and not until these have been learned can originality occur in their manipulation or variation" (390).

While these approaches may help the beginning to intermediate ESL proficiency levels understand basic grammatical and stylistic considerations, I view them as ineffectively preparing the students for future academic and career writing tasks. Simply stated, in the Controlled and Semi-Controlled approaches not enough time is spent discussing and experimenting with actual student writing.

The Neo-Aristotelian Composition Approach

The Neo-Aristotelian approach is probably the most popular approach in American universities used to teach writing skills to intermediate to advanced ESL proficiency levels. Adapted from traditional native student composition classes, Aristotle's 28 topoi for inventing enthymemes are molded into what native composition teachers call the eight patterns of development. Thus, most ESL composition textbooks are written to help students write the following essays: description, narration, process, definition, classification and analysis, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, and argumentation and persuasion.

When this approach is used in the ESL composition class, students are often told to follow paradigmatic outlines that result in five paragraph essays. The students' essays, no matter what pattern of development is in use, are generally completed with one introductory paragraph, three main paragraphs, and a concluding paragraph. D'Angelo shows the analysis paradigmatic outline to look like this:

1 Introduction (state thesis)
2 Characteristic 1
3 Characteristic 2
4 Characteristic 3, 4, 5
5 Conclusion (69)

However, while this approach allows for more of the ESL student's own writing than in the other generally used approaches, it has still come under attack. Sommers notes that:

> How very important is the relation between discovering a structure and discovering a meaning. . . .Yet we rob our students of this very important part of this discovery process, . . .by forcing them to write formulaic five paragraph essays. . . . .A fixed structure often inhibits the discovery of ideas and therefore, the process of significant revision. . . .It must be remembered that there are numerous forms of writing to teach our students besides the formulaic essay. (48-9)

Consequently, I view the Free, Controlled, Semi-Controlled, and the Neo-Aristotelian approaches to ESL writing as ineffective second language techniques in preparing undergraduate non-native students to communicate in their academic and future career choices. Simply stated, the process of composing in these approaches is subordinated to the mechanical manipulation of models, disregarded by not helping the students with invention or revision of their writing, or limited by forcing the students to write within restrictive outlines. When assignments are made in these approaches, there is little thought given to the future needs of the students.

Towards Teaching English for the Professions

Canale and Swain began to stress a functionally-based communicative approach as opposed to the grammar-based approaches previously proposed for ESL composition. Currently, other ESL researchers are attempting to clarify these functional writing demands by focusing on students' communicative needs. Kroll, and

Ostler, both at the university of Southern California, researched the writing needs and demands of non-native students in American universities. Kroll's research indicates that students need writing classes that would give them practice in writing skills that they would use in the future. Ostler's research indicates that many of the writing skills that non-native students need practice in are subject-specific. Johns, at San Diego State University, discovered that in ESL composition classes all four language skills are important and that ESP classes are particularly preferred by the Engineering faculty at her university.

Pearson claims that many ESL students entering university have trouble achieving communicative competence in the four language skills because many of the concepts that underlie these competencies are culture-bound. Thus this researcher notes that the four language skills should be taught together when necessary at the earliest university level to help these students meet their forthcoming communication needs. Pearson recommends teaching the "academically important concepts such as paraphrasing, summarizing, general to specific modes, and relevant to irrelevant sorting techniques to university ESL undergraduates by using real-world functionally communicative discourse" (420). Blenton warns that ESL students taught only through personalized narrative-based writing syllabi may not be capable of surviving in an academic world where impersonal formal exposition is required. Finally, Carpenter and Hunter recommend functional writing courses as the best way to improve writing, and thus, communicative competence for the ESL student in the academic setting. I saw this new undergraduate approach as a modification of the British idea of English for Specific Purposes; a type of individualized undergraduate ESL Writing Across the Curriculum Approach.

Designing a Modified English for Specific Purposes Course

Like most curriculum design projects, my ESP course evolved after I had spent much time reviewing the existing, but in my view, inadequate theoretical design models. These models, all designed for the British higher educational system, were of particular interest because of their combination of both occupational and educational English purposes as the basis for an ESP course. Strevens (see Appendix A) divided all special purpose language teaching courses into their occupational or educational contexts ("Special Purpose" 101). He developed further distinctions between these two contexts by differentiating among the various experimental student levels possible in any course. Also the British Ministry of Overseas Development issued their own theoretical design model(see Appendix B), from which I noted a further division in English for Educational Purposes (EEP). This latter model divided EEP into English for study in a specific discipline and English as a school subject. Even more confusion resulted from the British Ministry's attempt to add a third acronym - -EST or English for Science and Technology, since no-one was, and I would argue still is, completely clear whether EST was solely for an occupational or an educational purpose.

Disadvantages to the Application of Existing Models

Strevens' model included both the occupational and educational post-experience and post-study statuses, but since students in this country would probably not enroll in a course for specific purposes if they had already finished the specific field of study or work, modifications were needed. Also, in the British ministry's model only the experienced/studied and the presently occupied/studying groups of students closely represented the status of non-native students at the American undergraduate level. Furthermore, these British models focused too much on the different forms of ESP. Modifications were needed to define ESP in the American undergraduate context as a combination of academic study skills, science and technology training where necessary, and future communicative and career readiness. Conversely, the previous British models diffused all these purposes into different and varied curricula.

Thus, any modifications I made on these previous models had to neatly combine EAP, EOP, and EST in building a unified approach to total communication for academic and career situations. These modifications had to clarify the steps a beginning ESP curriculum designer should follow in developing such a course. The most effective curriculum design process I had studied was that developed by Davis and Borgan, who presented four stages to curriculum design - -Identification, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation - -and it was through these stages that I developed my own curriculum design model (see Appendix C), and my own modified ESP course.

Course Description

Pre-teaching design involved the identification of student needs, faculty desires, and institutional constraints. In addition, cross curricular connections, room, time, and space scheduling, and realistic teaching materials had to be developed at this pre-teaching stage. The actual teaching was conducted during the implementation stage, and the student, faculty, and support staff evaluations were conducted during the last stage of the design model.

The course is individualized as much as possible, and therefore, it is quite time-consuming. Writing assignments are individualized in that Business majors are taught the writing skills and tasks their professors expect them to be competent in, while Science and Engineering students are taught different writing skills and tasks. These skills and tasks are discovered through faculty surveys, and recently published writing across the curriculum research findings.

In addition, support services are utilized. Each student is assigned a discipline specific tutor in the writing center to help with specific writing difficulties. The students also are given tutoring in the Reading center, and the texts used with these students are discipline specific. Also, the language lab is used to teach listening comprehension. Finally, each student is required to have one twenty minute conference with the writing instructor each week to discuss what he/she is writing and one twenty minute conference with his/her discipline-specific advisor.

While the class is individualized as much as possible, each student is taught the following key academic skills:

- Writing Tasks which are directly related to their majors
- Research skills that will help them work more effectively later
- Documentation skills in their discipline's style sheet
- Note-taking, paraphrasing, and comprehension reading skills
- Oral presentation skills

In terms of success, through the use of follow-up surveys, I have discovered that the students and faculty involved have found the course to help ESL students advance in their majors and careers. My initial intuitions about the need for such a modified approach have lead me to design a course which focused on skills rather than elements, specific academic and professional writing tasks rather than general writing tasks, and listening, speaking, and reading skills improvement rather than the mastery of native-like pronunication. The course met the individual student's present and future needs and did not try to meet perceived group needs, often perceived before the students have entered the class let alone completed any writing. The course focused on real-world writing and not the usual required writing for a teacher or examiner. Finally, the course encouraged both student and teacher motivation through the realization of the students' goals.

The rationale for using this modified ESP approach over other general ESL approaches is that the current research points to the need for such a development in our field. In reviewing the literature concerning ESL approaches, and in acting on the responses gained from the faculty questionnaire, this course has been modified to meet the advanced ESL students' needs more effectively. Therefore, the modified ESP approach focuses on the specific skills these students will need to survive academically and professionally. All four language skills are taught as needed; no imitation, controlled, semi-controlled, or free approaches are used. Assignments and weekly tutorial sessions are individualized, and the academic and community resources are used to their maximum effectiveness by the students who can consult well-qualified support staff.

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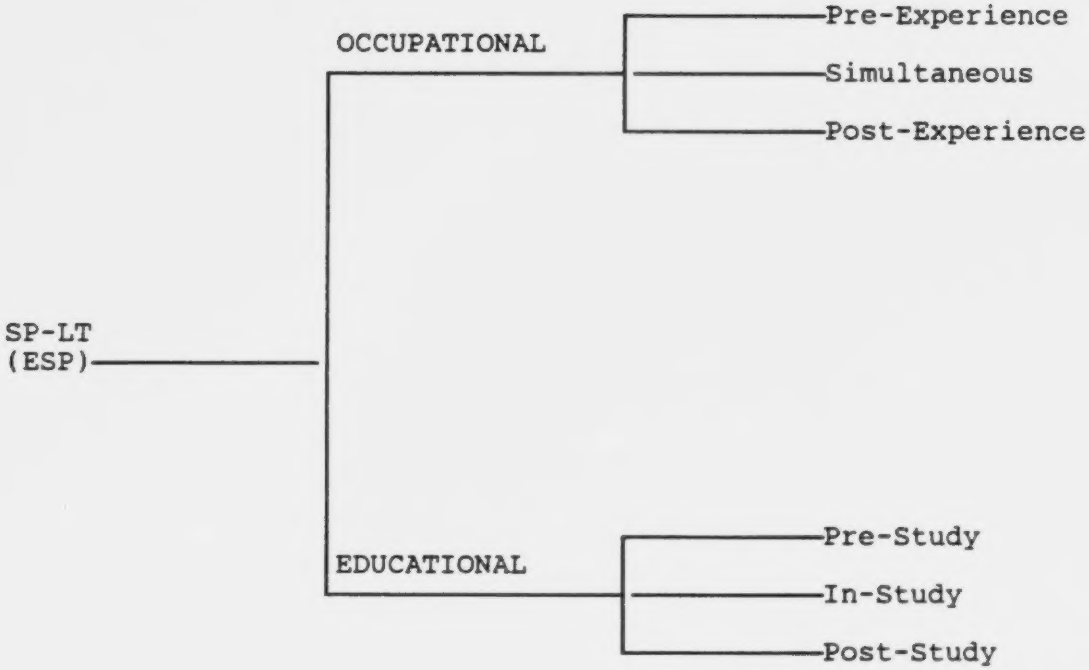
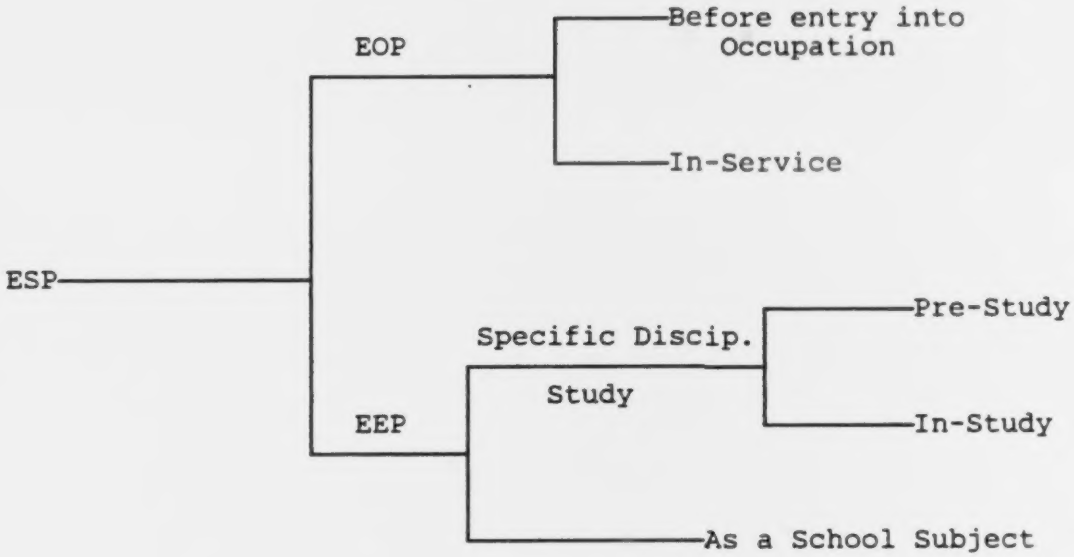
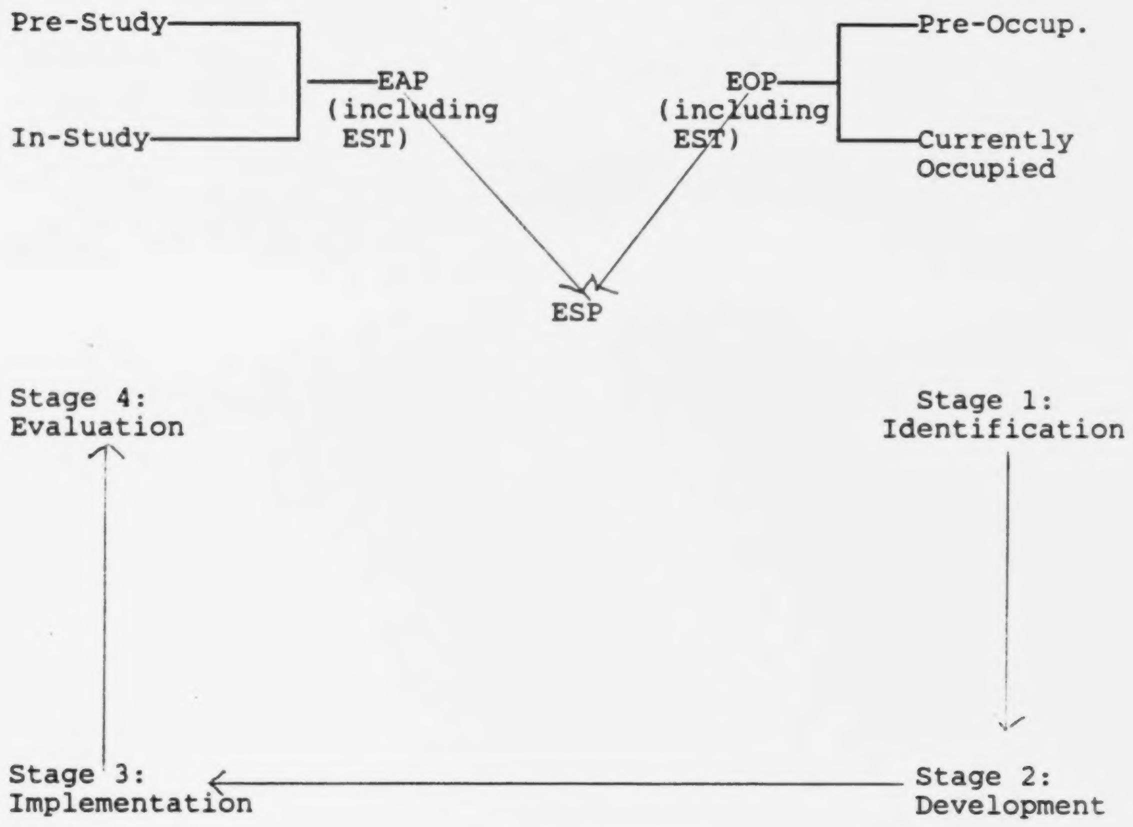
APPENDIX A: STREVENS' ESP CURRICULUM DESIGN MODEL


OCCUPATIONAL
Pre-Experience
Simultaneous
Post-Experience
SP-LT
(ESP)
EDUCATIONAL
Pre-Study
In-Study
Post-Study

APPENDIX B: BRITISH MINISTRY'S ESP CURRICULUM DESIGN MODEL


ESP
EOP
Before entry into Occupation
In-Service
EEP
Specific Discip. Study
Pre-Study
In-Study
As a School Subject

APPENDIX C: WALLACE'S MODIFIED ESP CURRICULUM DESIGN MODEL


Pre-Study
In-Study
EAP (including EST)
EOP (including EST)
Pre-Occup.
Currently Occupied
ESP
Stage 4: Evaluation
Stage 1: Identification
Stage 3: Implementation
Stage 2: Development

Writing (English As a Second Language) in Accounting

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Writing (English As a Second Language) in Accounting

Accounting students for whom English is a second language (ESL students) face a daunting situation: the need to develop not only the requisite technical skills but also professional level writing skills. ESL students, however, are not alone in their dilemma. For some time the writing skills of accounting students in general have been a source of concern in the profession in the U.S. Employers charge that students' writing skills are inadequate to the demands of the profession. Accounting teachers respond in various ways. Some declare that there is simply no time to devote to writing --given the ever-expanding mass of technical accounting material that must be covered. Others assert that the teaching of writing skills is properly the province of the English Department. Some would like to help, but believe they do not know how to do so.

This paper describes a technique used in accounting courses to help students develop technical expertise and writing skills simultaneously. It was developed in classes in which there were large groups of both ESL and non-ESL students. First, the reasoning that led to the development of the technique is described. Then, the technique itself is explained and illustrated. Finally, an assessment of its costs and benefits is presented.

Given that the classes were mixed groups, the first concern was to develop some means of helping the class as a whole. It seemed probable that non-ESL students would resent activities designed primarily to assist ESL students. Similarly, it seemed likely that ESL students would not appreciate the generation of such resentment among their peers.

Consequently, the first issue was to determine whether there were any types of writing deficiencies common to both groups. Student responses to exam questions were evaluated for writing difficulties and the following were noted: (1) errors in spelling and punctuation, (2) difficulties with organization and logical sequencing, and (3) deficient sentences. "Deficient sentences" were those characterized by inaccurate or ambiguous word choice, grammatical errors, or questionable syntax.

All examples of deficient sentences from a set of exams were copied and identified as to whether they were written by ESL or non-ESL students. Then copies of all sentences (with the source group deleted) were mixed together. An attempt was then made to determine which of the sentences were written by ESL students. Many times sentences that appeared "foreign" (due primarily to tortured syntax) were actually written by students whose native language is English. This is not to imply that the writing of non-ESL students was unusually bad. In fact, much of the writing from both groups of students was quite good. However, analysis revealed that both groups had difficulties with the following: (1) word choice, (2) verbs (especially tense consistency), (3) sentence structure (run-on sentences and fragments), (4) prepositions, and (5) inconsistencies of person or number. Given the writing samples, it appeared that students could benefit from (1) explanation of various writing deficiencies, (2) opportunities to practice writing, and (3) feedback. Consequently, a technique involving frequent practice and frequent feedback was developed.

In an initial class meeting students are informed that they must submit a formal, one-page analysis of a case involving accounting issues each week of the semester. In general, the assigned cases are in the end-of-chapter materials in their textbooks. At times they are based on current events. The cases are evaluated on two bases: analysis of the accounting issue(s) and writing.

Initial reaction to the writing requirements is often negative. Student comments lead me to believe that this is due to the following factors. (1) Many students believe that acquiring technical accounting skills is more important than writing; therefore, the time spent on writing should be allocated to accounting issues. (2) Many students fear writing and do not know how to improve their skills. (3) Writing well does take time.

To persuade students that writing well is as important as having technical skills, the results of James Rebele's study are reported. "An Examination of Accounting Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Communication Skills in Public Accounting" appeared in Issues in Accounting Education (American Accounting Association, 1985, pp. 41-50.) The study discusses the importance practitioners place on writing skills and students' perceptions that such skills are relatively unimportant. Class discussion can be directed to (1) the probable reasons for such perceptions and (2) generating descriptions of accounting job situations likely to require written work (e.g., memos and reports to managers and clients) In addition, students are reminded that the cases are not simply writing exercises but analyses of technical issues discussed in the course.

To persuade students that they can improve their writing, class time is spent discussing various writing skills. The issues discussed include "macro skills" (organization, logical sequencing, relevance), "micro skills" (word choice, sentence structure, tense consistency, and so forth) and "mechanics" (spelling and punctuation). Each of these is illustrated by providing examples of deficiencies from previous students' writing. Appropriate corrections of these examples are elicited and discussed.

In each subsequent week approximately five to ten minutes are devoted to writing issues. All discussion is based on student writing samples from the case submitted the previous week. Two or three illustrations of common difficulties are presented and students suggest revisions. In addition, students are given the opportunity to rewrite cases on which they receive poor grades.

The following pages present some of the examples used as illustrations in class discussions. Students' sentences appear in quotations. These are followed by indications of suggested revisions. In the actual class meetings the student sentences are presented on overhead transparencies.

The authors of the sentences are never identified. No indications of errors or suggestions for revisions appear. These are elicited in class discussion. In general, students seem to enjoy participating in the process of "fixing" the sentences. They certainly appear to find participating more stimulating than simply listening to the instructor explain appropriate revisions. In the following set of illustrations, the first two examples include more detailed descriptions of the points made in discussions. The other examples include only brief indications of the suggested revisions.

Choosing appropriate accounting terms

"When the sale is made, they should write down the income."

- In accounting "write down" does not mean "to record". It refers to the process of reducing the value of assets in the books. For example, "The inventory was 'written down' because its market value was lower than its cost."

- There is a difference between "revenue" and "income".

Sales generate "revenue".

"Income" is the excess of revenues and gains over expenses and losses.

Suggested revision:

"When the sale is made, they should record the revenue.

Choosing appropriate accounting terms

"Different methods of depreciation do have different net realization book value."

Two terms ("book value" and "net realizable value") appear to be scrambled.

The "book value" of a depreciable asset is its historical cost less depreciation taken to date.

"Net realizable value" is the amount which a company believes it could realize from an asset. For example, on the balance sheet accounts receivable are presented at "net realizable value" or the amount that the company estimates to be "collectible".

The words "do have" are imprecise.

Suggested revision: "Different methods of depreciation result in different book values."

Choosing appropriate accounting terms

"The maximum amount at which the asset should be established is its market value."

- recorded

"Dallas incurred an investment of common stock."

- acquired

"They should realize the expenses in the current period."

-recognize

Choosing appropriate words in general

1. "Hakes's management constructs its company to just one goal - increase the wealth."

   -orients

2. "For the measurement of periodic income the factors to be considered in determining when revenue has been realized are applied in the revenue realization principle."

   -specified

3. "Estimation of interest in a deferred payment purchase is needed but the interest is acted as a separate element of the periodic payments."

   -and
   -treated

4. "The company has duel objectives."

   -dual

5. "There is a general lack of unawareness of the effect of this choice."

   -lack of awareness

Difficulties with verbs

1. "In a transaction a cash or cash-equivalent price represent the value of the asset acquired, and the value of the assets is neither increase nor decrease regardless of the situation."

- represents/ increased / decreased
- be consistent with the number of "asset"

2. "It does not required adjusting the journal entries."

- require

3. "They don't follow the rule that given by generally accepted accounting principles."

- is given

4. "Objective evidence provided by an exchange transaction support the existence of revenue."

- supports

Sentence structure

"The LIFO method greatly reduces inventory profits and causing the net income to more accurately reflect an amount can be distributed to stockholders it tends to produce net income and inventory measurements that reflect conservatism convention which hold that when alternative solutions to an accounting problem can be reasonably supported an accountant should favor the solution that least favorably affects net income and net assets of the current period."

The LIFO method greatly reduces inventory profits and *causes* the net income to more accurately reflect an amount *that* can be distributed to stockholders. *It* tends to produce net income and inventory measurements that reflect *the* conservatism convention. *This convention* hold*s* that when alternative solutions to an accounting problem can be reasonably supported, an accountant should favor the solution that least favorably affects net income and net assets of the current period.

More sentence structure

"Although much of the historical cost principle been criticized, accountants tend to emphasize it primarily because it can be determined with greater precision than any other alternative bases of measurement as it is rather a matter of record and as a result they can be precisely verified and therefore it is considered as the most reliable measurement."

Although * the historical cost principle *has* been *(much)* criticized, accountants tend to emphasize it. *This is* primarily because *historical cost* can be determined with greater precision than any other alternative bases of measurement. * It is * a matter of record, and as a result *it* can be precisely verified. *T*herefore it is considered as the most reliable measurement.

Sentence structure

"The excess of revenue over cost of goods when the goods is sold."

-fragment

Gross profit is the excess of revenue over cost of goods when the goods *are* sold.

"Finally, an estimate of residual or salvage value in applying the cost allocation methods that are used in practice."

-fragment

Finally, *one needs* an estimate of...

Consistency

"If the company cuts into the LIFO cushion, its net income will be high and so will their taxes."

-its

The accountant must make the estimate, and so they must use a lot of professional judgment.

-she or he

Prepositions

* "Plant assets are accounted at historical cost."

-accounted for at

* "The cost must be allocated the assets."

-allocated to or allocated over

* "You have a significant influence to the company."

-influence on or influence over

* "In the other hand, it is necessary to analyze the facts."

-on the other hand

The Matter of Relevance

Exam question:

Discuss the reasons for imposing a "ceiling" and a "floor" on "market" when valuing inventory at the lower of cost or market.

Student response:

"The ceiling is the estimated selling price minus the costs of completion and disposal. The floor is the ceiling less a normal profit margin. Market is the current replacement cost of the item, but it cannot be more than the ceiling or less than the floor."

Has the student complied with the instructions ?

Spelling notes #1

	NOT
faithful	faithfull
truthful	truthfull
useful	usefull
until	untill
professional	proffessional
accrual	accural
liable	liabal
realize	relize
recognize	recognizate
trial balance	trail balance
consistent	consistant
existent	existant
relevant	relevent
feasible	feasable
defer	deferr
deferred	defered
incur	incurr
incurred	incured
occur	occurr
occurred	occured

From the perspective of the instructor, the costs associated with the above-described technique fall· into three categories: preparation, allocation of class time, and evaluation. Initial preparation involves selecting approriate cases and obtaining examples to illustrate various writing deficiencies. If the class text provides cases in the end-of-chapter materials and if student writing samples are available, these tasks can be accomplished relatively quickly. Preparation for each class meeting is relatively minimal. One need only select sentences which illustrate common difficulties students encountered in preparing the previous case. Transparencies of these need to be prepared if one wishes to use the overhead projector. Class time consumed by the technique is also relatively minimal. The initial discussion of the writing requirements generally requires about one hour. Subsequently, five to ten minutes per week are spent in discussion of the examples from student work. The most costly aspect of the technique is time spent in evaluation. On average, each case requires from five to seven minutes for evaluation. Obviously, the viability of the technique depends critically on the number of students involved. However, some time trade-offs may be considered. For example, if the instructor currently includes discussion questions on exams, she may wish to convert to objective exams that can be electronically graded. The time saved could then be reallocated to evaluating students' cases. Alternatively, one could reduce the number of cases required or seek grading assistance.

Many benefits are generated by the technique. First, students come to understand the importance of writing skills in accounting. Comments indicate that although they find the writing requirements burdensome, students appreciate the feedback. Errors are not corrected in the students' work. They are marked, and students are invited to submit corrections. The short, weekly discussions are important for two reasons. They provide the opportunity for instruction. In addition, students appear to feel that these sessions acknowledge their efforts to improve.

The technique makes it possible for the teacher to assist both ESL and non-ESL students simultaneously. To some degree ESL students tend to make different kinds of grammar and syntax errors. For example, ESL students frequently forget the "s" on the third person singular of many verbs in the present tense (e.g., "she record" instead of "she records") or the "-ed" on regular past participles. It is less likely that a non-ESL student would make such an error. However, it is always possible to find deficiencies shared by both groups for the class discussion. Errors common to ESL students are dealt with on an individual basis.

A final benefit of the technique is that students are improving not only their writing skills but also their understanding of accounting issues. Requiring them to write about such issues seems to clarify their understanding of them. From the perspective of this author the benefits exceed the costs.

USE OF PROFESSIONAL VIDEO FILM FOR TACKLING LINGUISTIC ASPECTS OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION IN THE WORLD OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

by

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USE OF PROFESSIONAL VIDEO FILM FOR TEACHING SOME LINGUISTIC AND OTHER ASPECTS OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION IN THE WORLD OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

(40 minutes)

Good Morning, Ladies and Gentlemen,

As we all know, watching television for enjoyment is different from learning English by video. Without detracting from the entertainment value and the motivation provided by the screen, how could one then exploit the outstanding potential of the video for language teaching purposes?

Some years ago, Anne and myself found a true source of inspiration in the ideas of the English video experts Jack Lonergan,Barry Tomalin, and Professor Brian Hill. We have developed some ideas further for use with the 13-episode BBC video serial *Bid for Power. Bid For Power* is a business drama about an imaginary country, Tanaku, and about international companies competing for a large project there -a theme very relevant to our students at the **Swedish School of Economics and Business Administration** in Helsinki.

Our examples today have been taken from our book *Bid for Power-The Video Way (Otava, 1986, Helsinki),* designed for intermediate and advanced levels, but we would like to point out that the techniques and methods we are going to demonstrate can be applied to any video film at any level.

What is it that makes the video such a marvellous tool for teaching languages? (OHP 1) With a pre-recorded video film we can certainly teach traditional grammar, phonetics, vocabulary, as indeed we can by many other means.

But, since the video takes us into the totality of a communicative situation, it makes possible an analysis of the multidimensional information appearing on screen. It is a marvellous tool for teaching those aspects of language which are not readily accessible in the classroom but which certainly contribute to comprehension and which must be taken into account when producing appropriate language.

The topic, setting, social role, such as age, sex, status,etc. along with the attitudes, moods of the participants, etc, are available on the screen in a video film like *Bid for Power*.

And what a convenient way the video is to demonstrate non-verbal features, especially if the only alternative is your own amateur acting skills.

Since *Bid for Power* is a business story, it also provides stimulating and life-like models for the analysis, practice and reproduction of various business skills and strategies, which is very rewarding for students of business English who may not yet have had any personal experience of business life at all.

As for cultural aspects, we feel they should be an integral part of language learning. The video is a superb device for drawing cultural and national characteristics and their effect on language and behaviour to the attention of the student.

So this is how we visualize any sequence in a video drama like *Bid for Power*:(OHP 1) . Our approach is basically twofold: Firstly, we want to increase our students' awareness of the contribution of the combination of verbal, contextual and non-verbal information to meaning: What is the real message of a particular scene? Secondly, all these aspects must be studied as well when the students themselves practice producing appropriate language for a specific situation.

With the video film alone, it is extremely difficult for any language student to retain all the information, verbal, visual and contextual, of a particular sequence, not to mention the difficulty of transferring the information to reality; the vast amount of information which flashes across the screen is received as impressions and must be captured in some way if the potential of the video is to be exploited.

We have therefore developed material for virtually every scene in *Bid for Power* in order to focus the attention of the student on one, or step by step, on several aspects of the information available. We have developed material which will completely integrate the video film into classroom teaching with the following aims in mind: (OHP 2a)

1) to help the student understand and retain the multidimensional information transmitted by the video

2) to create opportunities for language practice

3) to maintain the interest of the student

4) to build bridges to further linguistic activities

5) to facilitate the transfer of language skills to the student's own reality

6) to make teaching with the video an active rather than a one-way process

We have made use of the following methodologies, which are not by any means new as such, but we would now like to demonstrate how we have applied some of them to the video film *Bid for Power*:

TECHNIQUES AND METHODS EMPLOYED:

FREEZE FRAME, HIGHLIGHTING, SILENT SEQUENCIES, VIDEO-SPLIT, REPETITION, etc.; PREDICTIVE SPEECH, SPECULATION, NARRATIVE RECALL, TRANSLATION, REPETITION, etc.

MATERIAL DESIGNED:

VIEWING GUIDES; NOTE-TAKING GRIDS; VIEWING FOR GIST GRIDS; OPINION-BUILDING GRIDS AND QUESTIONS; REGISTER AND STYLE GRIDS; GRIDS AND QUESTIONS ON KINESICS AND PROXEMICS, etc.

Our examples have been chosen to illustrate some of these active viewing methods, so the story may appear a little unconnected. In a classroom situation, however, we handle the material chronologically, scene by scene, and the plot acts as a red thread throughout. Before showing each sequence the teacher should decide whether any pre-viewing activities are needed.

(As pictures tell us more than one thousand words and as the combination of pictures and sound does even more so, the manuscripts that have been included to give the background for each of our examples (Appendix) on this paper only contain some of the information that is apparent on screen . Thus some imagination will be required from the reader when asked to focus on clearly audio-visual features.)

(VIDEO DEMONSTRATIONS :)

EX. 1 FOCUS ON RETAINING AND UNDERSTANDING INFORMATION

Beautiful scene, moonlight on the water, interesting relationship... But what did the girl tell the man to do? Our students would not remember. But an **active viewing guide** like the first grid on page 1,which the students can fill in with a minimum effort while watching provides sign-posts to understanding. It also extends their vocabulary, and acts as an adequate aide-memoire for future reference. These viewing guides are not designed to test comprehension. Instead they encourage students to be alert, active viewers.

EX. 2 FOCUS ON STYLE AND REGISTER

It may be easy for our students to recognise grammatical errors once their attention has been brought to them, but it is much more difficult, even for advanced students, to master different styles and register of the target language. I'm afraid that many of us non-native speakers of

English occasionally sound like this: (OHP 3)

However, the video with its complete communicative situations is a marvellous tool to practise **SAYING THE RIGHT THING AT THE RIGHT TIME.**

FOCUS ON GREETINGS AND INTRODUCTIONS

So, how to greet and introdúce people in an appropriate way? We ask ourstudents to decide whether the utterances within the grids in example 23 are more formal, as formal, or less formal than those used by the characters. Why are some of them inappropriate in this particular situation? What else could you say here?

EX. 3 FOCUS ON PROXEMICS

And what a convenient opportunity of demonstrating behaviour: when to shake hands, when to kiss, etc.
In example 3 we ask our students to think about the way in which Christine, the main character, greets Manuel Silva, the husband of her friend Ramilla. About 50% of our students would find the little kiss acceptable in similar situations in Finland, wheras the other half would regard it as quite odd. And, is there perhaps a cultural difference between Finland and Tanaku, England, France, America? Would there be countries where this would simply not be acceptable at all? Lots of spontaneous discussion would follow, based on the personal experience of the students.

EX. 4 FOCUS ON ETIQUETTE

In addition to language practice, we can focus for instance on etiquette:
Why is the Lady introduced to the Gentleman, rather than the Gentleman to the Lady? What do you know about the order of introductions in business hierarchy?

EX. 5 FOCUS ON SMALL TALK

Or, we can focus on the small talk to follow:
What is the function of small talk here?
It has been proved, even scientifically, that Finns tolerate silences in conversation far better than most Europeans. But it is, of course, important for our future "captains of industry" to know that for instance in the Anglo-Saxon culture, long pauses in conversation may break the rules of politeness in certain circumstances.

In class we could easily move into cue drills, role plays, simulations involving greetings and introductions, but let's now practise the same functions in another setting by making use of the predictive speech technique:

EX. 6 FOCUS ON APPROPRIACY

Notice "Doctor Walker" rather than "Miss Walker", no kissing between Christine and Silva; they are in a formal office setting.

Now Dr Azevedo is about to perform the introductions; Christine does not know Edward Ferguson yet.
What will Dr Azevedo say? What will the others say?

In Finland we are used to introducing ourselves in most situations without the help of a third person. Therefore a lot of practice is needed before the students can perform the introductions elegantly and naturally, especially in the formal register.

There are tens and tens of language functions in *Bid for Power*.
We could still have a look at business invitations

EX. 7 FOCUS ON INVITATIONS

Again, with the help of a grid in example 7a, we can practise how to present an invitation in different circumstances, how to accept it, how to decline it.

EX. 8 FOCUS ON THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN BUSINESS

Let's compare and contrast an other kind of business invitation to the previous scene. Among the many differences in example 7b (informal-formal, joking-serious, business friends-business acquaintances, American-Japanese,etc.), one can also notice the vibrations of slight flirtation between Rose and Christine, which, as well as the fuss about who is paying at the beginning of this scene , can be used as a basis for a discussion about the role of women in business and about the huge cross-cultural differences in this area.Is there a change in businessmen's language and behaviour in some cultures when they deal with women?

EX. 9 FOCUS ON FORMS OF ADDRESS

The forms of address **Nancy** versus **Mr Faulkner** between the boss and secretary (or **Paul** versus **Dr Walker**) is a reason for bewilderment among our students: In Finland you would address each other either by **Nancy-Harry** or **Miss Smith-Director Faulkner** whatever the difference in age or status might be. There is no equivalence to the word "sir" in the Finnish language. However,Finns are very keen on titles, like some other Europeans. Here we have an example where American and German executives address each other in a different way. Who should perhaps follow whose lead in this case?

EX. 10 FOCUS ON RELATIONSHIPS, CONGRATULATING AND RESPONDING, GIVING AND RECEIVING ORDERS

In this scene the viewer meets Harry Faulkner and David Rose for the first time. When we want to focus on the relationship between these two men with the little grid in example 10a many of our students are diverted from it by the very informal atmosphere of this office setting. Harry's smiling face. the informal greetings, the joking way of speaking, hide the fact that he is in a position to give David a pat on his head. offer him vacation's, give him orders. If we compare and contrast this scene with our next scene where Edward Ferguson receives congratulations and orders from his Japanese boss, our students would not feel 'at home' here either because the formal language Ferguson uses in his replies is seen as over-deferential.

EX. 11 FOCUS ON THE CONCEPT OF HONOUR

The introduction of the concept of honour by Watanabe together with the grid in example 11 may result in a vivid cross-cultural comparison, at least within the frame of reference of the story.

EX. 12 FOCUS ON INTONATION

In fact, English intonation, especially indicating different attitudes, is a big problem for Finns, as it certainly is for many other nationalities, as well.The video helps the students to get a fuller knowledge of the psychological and social roles of the participants and they can additionally study the facial expressions, hand and body movements,etc. of the participants.

With the so-called video split technique we could first play the sound only of the following scene and then the sound and picture and compare the results on the chart in example 12.
During the second time, the message of Christine's intonation becomes clear.
Rose's artistry in 'making accidental contacts' is laughed at, but regarded as a very unfamiliar phenomenon by the 'serious' and 'sincere' Finnish students; the boys would not know how to say it and the girls would not know how to react to it. Something to practise,perhaps, before entering the world of international communication!

EX. 13 FOCUS ON THE CONCEPT OF LOSING FACE

Let's speculate what is going to happen now. This scene can easily trigger off discussion about losing one's face. The concept may differ greatly in different parts of the world and have a different importance in different cultures.

EX. 14 FOCUS ON NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

We have attempted a more detailed analysis of non-verbal communication in example 14 because Finns are considered quite silent in this 'language' as well.
Here we ask the students to interpret the facial gestures and movements of the characters. Apart from its being quite fun, it is also useful for our students to learn to understand the meaning of certain gestures, which may not always be as self-evident for them at all as they are for the representatives of some other cultures.

EX. 15 FOCUS ON SALESMANSHIP

We have learnt that David Rose can be quite persuasive. It is certainly a capacity needed in his role as a business executive. Our next scene focuses on 'Salesmanship' where Edward Ferguson, Roses's competitor, has a big role to play. The scene lasts for about two minutes and it can illustrate our step by step approach to help the student focus on several items of the informationa available.

Our first step would be to have a closer look at Ferguson's offer with the help of a viewing guide.How advantageous would this offer really be for the NDA in Tanaku?

Our next step be to divide the passage into various stages and then concentrate on the tactics employed. Taking notes,the students should fill in the language used to support each tactic, paying special attention to the language of persuasion, in this case the so called 'hard sell'. The language functions of agreeing, disagreeing, partially agreeing, are of a special interest in any scene involving skillful negotiations. The body language of the characters also indicates clear messages. Do the characters themselves observe these hints?

When analysing Ferguson's behaviour with the help of the grids, the students can follow the change in his behaviour until he finally loses control and forgets even the basic rules of common politeness when leaving the room. But he is also the 'baddy' of the story.

EX. 16 FOCUS ON THE CONCEPT OF POLITENESS

Politeness with certain amount of elegance is often the basis for successful business communication.But "translating" one's polite ideas into a foreign language may not always result in the expected effect, because the concepts of politeness, modesty, tact, may be different in different cultures. Some international businessmen may say to a language teacher:" You cannot teach tens of years of experience." Well, with the video, one can at least try to take a shortcut there by in-creasing the learners' awareness in this highly complicated and extremely interesting and challenging area.

CONCLUSION

In a classroom situation, going through the last scene in the way indicated here would take quite a long time; it is easy to realize how a few minutes of video film can readily lead to several hours of language practice. So it is up to the teacher to decide what aspects he wants to focus on and which methods and techniques he wants to employ.

This is how we see the interaction between the student, teacher, and video: (OHP 4)

-The teacher manipulates the video.

-The video is an aid, a tool. It provides a model and triggers off linguistic activities.

-The student responds to the stimulus.

-The teacher filters the response and guides the student towards the production of appropriate language.

With the "interactive" video as a stimulating starting point, bridges can be built to further linguistic activities (OHP 5) which the student can make use of in his own reality: (OHP 6)

Ulla Ladau-Harjulin & Anne Morgan, ***BID FOR POWER - THE VIDEO WAY***,
Otava Publishing Company, 00120 Helsinki, Finland, 1986.

BBC English by Radio and Television,
PO BOX 76, Bush House,
London WC 2B - 4 PH,
England.

ACTIVE VIEWING MATERIAL

EX. 1
FOCUS ON UNDERSTANDING AND RETAINING INFORMATION

According to Christine's off-the-record talk, the only way for Faulkner to remain competitive is to ________________________
________________________ This is important for ________________
____

She tells Rose to form a ________________________

How would the tasks be divided between	Faulkner Enterprises	Company II	Company III (silicon manufacturer)
to make a bid for the silicon plant			
to build a power station			
to build a coking plant			
to help Tanaku build a solar panel factory			
to buy the extra silicon			

What does Christine promise Rose if he does as she advises?

EX. 2
FOCUS ON STYLE AND REGISTER

a) Greetings

CHRISTINE: "Hello, Manuel."

Are these expressions	more formal	as formal	less formal
Good afternoon, Manuel.			
Afternoon			
How delightful to see you again, Manuel.			
Hi!			

What else might Christine have said instead?

____

REGISTER

b) Introducing someone

RAMILLA: "Uncle, this is my friend, Christine Walker from England."

Are these utterances	more formal	as formal	less formal
Have you met Christine Walker?			
May I introduce Dr. Walker?			
Uncle, meet Christine.			

What else might Ramilla have said instead?

____

c) Answering an introduction

CHRISTINE: "How do you do . . .?"
AZEVEDO: "How do you do . . .?"

Are these utterances	more formal	as formal	less formal
Hello!			
I'm delighted to meet you.			
Pleased to meet you.			
I'm delighted to make your acquaintance.			

Think of a situation when "How do you do?" would not be suitable.

EX. 3
FOCUS ON PROXEMICS
OPINION

In your country would Christine's kissing Silva be considered

☐ odd
☐ reprehensible
☐ acceptable

EX. 4
FOCUS ON ETIQUETTE
OPINION

Why do you think the lady was introduced to the gentleman, rather than the gentleman to the lady?

FOCUS ON KINESICS

How do you interpret Azevedo's sigh?

EX. 5
FOCUS ON SMALL TALK

AZEVEDO:	. . . Is this your first visit to Tanaku?
CHRISTINE:	Yes. And I'm enjoying it very much. It's a beautiful country.
AZEVEDO:	Yes, it is beautiful. How long are you staying?
CHRISTINE:	Only till Monday, I'm afraid.
AZEVEDO:	Oh, what a pity!
CHRISTINE:	Well, all good things come to an end.

What is the function of this conversation?

EX. 6
FOCUS ON APPROPRIACY
PREDICTIVE SPEECH

AZEVEDO: ______________________________
____

FERGUSON: ______________________________

CHRISTINE: ______________________________

EX. 7
FOCUS ON INVITING

REGISTER

a) **Giving an invitation/Accepting and declining an invitation**

Hosokawa invites Christine, Clarke and Silva to Japan.
What phrases does he use? How does Clarke respond?

HOSOKAWA: By the way, you should see our manufacturing

process. ______________________________

____

CLARKE: ______________________________

HOSOKAWA: ______________________________

CLARKE: ______________________________

Could any of the following utterances be used in this situation? Compare them to those above and indicate their degree of formality by using A (= most formal), B, and C (= least formal).

	Inviting		Accepting		Declining
	I'd very much like you to come and ...		That would be very nice.		It is most unfortunate, but much to our regret we must decline your kind invitation...
	We should be delighted if you could come and...		Great!		Thanks, but I don't think we'll be able to make it...
	Why don't you come and see our ...		That would give us the greatest pleasure.		Thank you very much, but we are unable to accept, because...

EX. 8
FOCUS ON THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN BUSINESS

Christine insists on paying for her own meal in order to:

☐ preserve her reputation
☐ salve her conscience
☐ make sure no-one casts doubts on her professional integrity

ROSE: Pansil beat me to it.

Find an alternative way of saying this.

____

REGISTER

7b) Giving and accepting an invitation

ROSE: That reminds me, have you ever been to California?

CHRISTINE: No.

ROSE: Well, it's famous for sushine, the Golden Gate Bridge and Faulkner Enterprises. Come and see it for yourself.

CHRISTINE: The Golden Gate Bridge?

ROSE: No. Our factory, where we make arc furnaces and other silicon processing equipment.

CHRISTINE: Is this an invitation?

ROSE: Yeah. And bring James Clarke with you. And Silva from Tanaku.

CHRISTINE: I think they'd like that.

ROSE: Good.

HOSOKAWA: By the way, you should see our manufacturing process. Pansil would be pleased to welcome both of you at our silicon plant in Japan.

CLARKE: That's very kind of you.

HOSOKAWA: I should also like to welcome Mr Silva, so that he can see it, too.

CLARKE: I'm sure he'd be delighted.

EX. 9

FOCUS ON FORMS OF ADDRESS

b) **SILVA**: Thank you Bettina. Have a good weekend.
BETTINA: Goodbye, Mr. Silva.
AZEVEDO: Goodbye, Bettina.
BETTINA: Goodbye, Sir.

What do these sentences reveal about the relationship between Azevedo, Silva and Bettina?

a) FAULKNER: Nancy!
FAULKNER: Put a call through to London, will you, please. It's Williams and Clarke, engineering consultants.

How might Faulkner continue?

☐ I want to speak to Mr. Clarke.
☐ I want to speak to James Clarke.
☐ I want to speak to Clarke

NANCY: Yes, Mr. Faulkner.

How might Nancy continue?

☐ Oh, Mr. Faulkner, Mr. Rose is here.
☐ Oh, Mr. Faulkner, a Mr. Rose is here.
☐ Oh, Mr. Faulkner, David Rose is here.
☐ Oh, Mr. Faulkner, Rose is here.
☐ Oh, Mr. Faulkner, David is here.

SILVA: Mr. Clarke?
CLARKE: Yes, that's me.
SILVA: How do you do? Welcome to Tanaku

c) CHRISTINE: Good morning, Betty. Good morning, Paul.

PAUL: Hello, Dr. Walker. James is expecting you.

Why do Christine and Paul use these forms of address?

OPINION

d) Why do you think Schlesinger calls Faulkner "Mr. Faulkner" and Faulkner calls Schlesinger "Erich"?

EX. 10

FOCUS ON RELATIONSHIPS

OPINION

a) The relationship between Faulkner and Rose is:

☐ that of friends
☐ that of friendly colleagues or associates
☐ that of superior and subordinate

How do you know?

REGISTER

b) **Congratulating and responding**

WATANABE: You've been very successful. FERGUSON: Well, I've always done my best to promote Pansil and its products. WATANABE: You did particularly well with the contract for the telephone exchange. And now there's the silicon project.	FAULKNER: You did a nice job in Argentina last month. Congratulations. You handled things very smoothly. ROSE: Thanks.

c) **Giving and receiving an order**

WATANABE: Now, I would like you to find out if anyone in Tanaku has been responsible for the rumour. FERGUSON: Mr. Watanabe, I can assure you I will do my best to find out.	ROSE: What's the project? FAULKNER: I didn't get all the details, but it looks like a big one, David. It includes a silicon processing plant. ROSE: You want me to find out all about it? FAULKNER: Right! or FAULKNER: Clarke is going to Tanaku, Monday morning. You're going to be there when he arrives, David.

Account for the difference in register of these sequences.

REGISTER

d) **Responding to thanks**

WATANABE: Thank you for the use of your telephone.
FERGUSON: Not at all. It's a great pleasure to see you back in Tanaku, Mr. Watanabe.

Which of these utterances might Ferguson have used instead?

	That's OK.
	Delighted to be of service, Mr. Watanabe.
	Don't mention it.
	That's quite all right, Mr. Watanabe.
	Anytime.

Why are the others inappropriate?

EX. 11
FOCUS ON THE CONCEPT OF HONOUR

WATANABE: Good. You see, Mr Ferguson, a rumour like this reflects on the honour of my company, and therefore on myself.

OPINION

On the basis of character, age, sex, cultural background, etc. indicate which individuals might use the following expressions. Discuss your choice.

	Watanabe	Ferguson	Silva	Azevedo
This reflects upon my honour				
Are you casting doubts on my professional integrity?				
This affects my reputation.				

	Clarke	Rose	Christine	Hardacre	Lehner
This reflects upon my honour					
Are you casting doubts on my professional integrity?					
This affects my reputation.					

EX. 12
FOCUS ON INTONATION

a)
1. Listen to Christine without looking at the screen (sound only). Indicate your interpretation.
2. Play the scene again and this time watch Christine (sound and picture). Indicate your interpretation.

	pleasure	amusement	surprise	curiosity	indifference	boredom	annoyance	anger
It's quite all right.								
You want me to take a picture of you?								
Yes. Yes, I know. I've got a camera just like this.								
Not really. There's no film in it.								
Yes!								
Oh, yes?								
I'm visiting some friends.								
Not really.								
We?								
Oh?								
Yes.								
You know, Mr. Rose, you don't look like an ordinary tourist, either.								
Because I saw you at the airport when Mr. Clarke arrived. So, what are you doing in Tanaku?								
"David Rose. Faulkner Enterprises, San Francisco."								
I see. Thank you.								

What sort of message is Christine's intonation conveying to Rose?

b) Let us say that Christine is quite overwhelmed by Rose's manly charms. How would she sound now?

EX. 13
FOCUS ON THE CONCEPT OF LOSING FACE
SPECULATION

EX. 14

FOCUS ON KINESICS

(idiosyncratic gestures, learned gestures, continuous movement)

In the third column write your interpretation of the facial gestures and body language of the characters.
You will notice that some gestures replace dialogue. In the first column suggest utterances that might fit the gestures.

ROSE: Hi, there!
CHRISTINE: What on earth brings you here?

ROSE: I'm on my way back to the states. I had to stop off in London, so I hired a car. Here I am and I wanted to let you know how things were going.	Rose puts head on one side Rose shrugs Rose nods	
CHRISTINE: But you know James Clarke is drawing up the bid specification, not me?	Christine gestures with hand	
ROSE: I'm sure he needs a lot of advice from you.	Rose raises eyebrows, smiles, moves head.	
CHRISTINE:	Christine raises eyebrows, sets face.	

ROSE: Anyhow this is just a friendly call. And I wanted to say hello to Professor Hardacre, not just to you. I was visiting Micrel in Germany, and Karl Engel mentioned the Hampton Research Institute and your agricultural programme.	Rose gestures with hand Rose turns to Hardacre Hardacre takes off spectacles Christine sets face Hardacre puts papers under arm Rose nods head Rose glances at Christine	
HARDACRE: Ah! How is Karl?	Hardacre smiles	
ROSE: Oh, he's fine. Fine. And he sends his regards.	Rose nods head	
HARDACRE: Splendid! Look! I'm off now. Why don't you both come to my place for tea?	Hardacre looks at watch, smiles, looks towards Christine	
CHRISTINE:	Christine shakes head	
ROSE:	Rose turns to Christine, smiles	
CHRISTINE:	Christine smiles	

EX. 15

FOCUS ON SALESMANSHIP

(tactics, behaviour, language, paralinguistics)

Ferguson's offer is advantageous to Pansil/the NDA because:

Pansil	NDA	
		it demands exclusivity
		it is long-term
		it gives Pansil an option to renew the agreement after twenty years
		Pansil are not prepared to sign a contract; but they want a Letter of Intent promising them the exclusive rights to buy the sand
		no other group can match Pansil's resources in the field of silicon-based products
		Pansil have a large demand for quartz as a raw material for their silicon-based products

STAGE 1

PRESENTATION

Ferguson:
____
____
____

COUNTERMOVE

Azevedo:
____, Mr. Ferguson. We are all realists. Your clients are making an offer, yes, ____
____
____
for a period of ____

CONCESSION

Ferguson:
____
____

REQUEST FOR CLARIFICATION

Silva:
____
____
____

CLARIFICATION

Ferguson:
____
All they want at the moment is ____
____

COUNTERMOVE

Silva:
____
____
____

STAGE 2

HARD SELL

Ferguson:
My clients tell me that ____
____ you can obtain.
It is a ____ realistic offer.
May I also remind you that
____
the resources of Pansil in this particular field.
They make ____ silicon based products.
They need a ____ of quartz.
That means ____
____

EVASION

Azevedo:
____
Mr. Ferguson, ____ we are waiting for an expert adviser to arrive. Unfortunately her plane is late.
____
____

STAGE 3

STEPPING UP THE HARD SELL

Ferguson:
Dr. Azevedo, my clients are asking
____
They are looking at ____
beaches ____
the matter is simple?
____ have ____
____ wish to ____
____
____

INTERRUPTION

Pay attention to Ferguson.

Does he appear to be:	STAGE 1	STAGE 2	STAGE 3
matter of fact			
polite			
controlled			
sincere			
convincing			
enthusiastic			
agitated			

STAGE 4

ADVICE

CHRISTINE: Of course, I'm a ______ not a ______ person ____ I can ____ you my ______________ to ______________ from Pansil if you wish. ____ you're going to ____ the sand in an __________ __________, the _____ is probably __________

CONCLUSION

FERGUSON: __________ ______________

DISAGREEMENT

CHRISTINE: __________ ______________

On the contrary, __________ ______________

PROTEST

FERGUSON: __________ ______________

DISMISSAL

CHRISTINE: __ Mr. Ferguson, ______ that is ______ I have a __________ ______ with Dr. Azevedo and Mr. Silva.

ATTACK

FERGUSON: A different proposal. ____________________?

ATTEMPTED CONCILIATION

AZEVEDO: Mr. Ferguson, ____________________

FINAL REMARK

FERGUSON: Very well. You ______________ __________, Dr. Azevedo. You know __________ ______________

AZEVEDO: __________ Goodbye, Mr. Ferguson. __ ______________

	uncertainty	certainty	anger	astonishment	politeness	rudeness	loss of control	your suggestion
Christine's behaviour shows								
Ferguson's behaviour shows								
Azevedo's behaviour shows								
Silva's behaviour shows								

EX. 16

FOCUS ON THE CONCEPT OF POLITENESS

APPENDIX

VIDEO TRANSCRIPTS

EX. 1

(Rose and Christine are walking along the waterfront in Tanaku City.)

Christine: What I have to say is strictly off the record. No one must know about this conversation.
Rose: OK.
Christine: Whoever bids for this contract must be able to guarantee a market for the extra silicon which Tanaku will produce each year.
Rose: Guarantee a market?
Christine: It's important for political reasons. Your company can't give such a guarantee on its own, can it?
Rose: No way! We're only going to make a bid for the silicon plant.
Christine: That won't be enough. You must form a consortium. Find another company to build a power station and a coking plant. Then you need another company which manufactures silicon products – solar cells, micro-circuits and so on. They will have to help Tanaku build a factory to make solar panels, and also buy the silicon which Tanaku wants to sell.
Rose: Wow! Anything else?
Christine: No.
Rose: And if we do all this, do we get the contract?
Christine: I can't possibly promise that. But you must do it anyway. Otherwise, Tanaku will sell the sand to Pansil.
Rose: I see. Well, at least I can try.
Christine: Good! First you have to find a firm which can build a solar panel factory and use the other silicon. Now I happen to know a firm . . .

EX. 2,3,4,5

(Silva and Azevedo arrive at Silva's house near Yatu Beach. They are greeted by Ramilla and Christine.)

Ramilla: Here they are, Christine! *(to Silva)* Hello, darling. Good journey?
Silva: Not too bad. *(to Christine)* Hello, Christine.
Christine: Hello, Manuel.
Ramilla: *(to Azevedo)* Uncle! How nice to see you!
Azevedo: It's good to see you, Ramilla.
Silva: *(to Christine)* I hope you're having a good time.
Christine: Oh, yes. It's a lovely place.
Ramilla: *(to Azevedo)* Uncle, this is my friend, Christine Walker, from England. *(to Christine)* Christine, this is my uncle.
Christine: How do you do, Dr Azevedo?
Azevedo: How do you do, Miss Walker? Is this your first visit to Tanaku?
Christine: Yes. And I'm enjoying it very much. It's a beautiful country.
Azevedo: Yes, it is beautiful. How long are you staying?
Christine: Only till Monday, I'm afraid.
Azevedo: Oh, what a pity!
Christine: Well, all good things come to an end.

EX. 6

(He puts the telephone down. Bettina shows Christine into the office.)

Azevedo: Miss Walker! Or rather, Dr Walker! You're very welcome.
Christine: I'm so sorry I'm late. The plane . . .
Azevedo: Never mind. You're just in time.
Silva: Hello, Christine. Welcome back!
Christine: Hello, Manuel.
Azevedo: May I introduce Mr Ferguson, of the Tanaku United Commercial Agency. Dr Christine Walker, of the Hampton Research Institute.
Ferguson: I'm delighted to meet you, Dr Walker.
Christine: How do you do, Mr Ferguson?
Azevedo: *(to Christine)* Would you like some coffee?
Christine: Oh yes, please. That would be lovely.

EX. 7

Hosokawa: Of course. By the way, you should see our manufacturing process. Pansil would be pleased to welcome both of you at our silicon plant in Japan.
Clarke: That's very kind of you.
Hosokawa: I should also like to welcome Mr Silva, so that he can see it, too.
Clarke: I'm sure he'd be delighted.

EX. 7,8

(The barman at Rose's hotel is serving drinks.)

Barman: I'm sure you'll enjoy this, madam.
Christine: Thank you. It's wonderful.
Rose: They look nice! Thank you.
Christine: Cheers!
Rose: Cheers! Try the straws!
Christine: David, before we eat – I must insist that I pay for my own meal tonight.
Rose: Pay? But I asked you here.
Christine: I'm sorry, but because of my position I simply can't allow you to pay for me.
Rose: Now, Christine –
Christine: Either you agree, or I leave.
Rose: OK. If you say so.
Well, I hope you had a better meeting than I did today.
Christine: Why? What happened?
Rose: Denham Engineering. Remember? Well, I was going to make a deal with them, but I didn't. Pansil beat me to it.
Christine: Oh!
Rose: I'm going to try someone else, in Paris. We want to win that contract.
Christine: I'm sure you do.
Rose: That reminds me, have you ever been to California?
Christine: No.
Rose: Well, it's famous for sunshine, the Golden Gate Bridge and Faulkner Enterprises. Come and see it for yourself.
Christine: The Golden Gate Bridge?
Rose: No. Our factory, where we make arc furnaces and other silicon processing equipment.
Christine: Is this an invitation?
Rose: Yeah. And bring James Clarke with you. And Silva from Tanaku.
Christine: I think they'd like that.
Rose: Good.

EX. 9,10

(Harry Faulkner, President of Faulkner Enterprises, is speaking on the intercom to his secretary.)

Faulkner: Nancy!
Nancy: *(on intercom)* Yes, Mr Faulkner?
Faulkner: Put a call through to London, will you, please. It's Williams and Clarke, engineering consultants. I want to speak to James Clarke.
Nancy: *(on intercom)* Yes, Mr Faulkner. Oh, Mr Faulkner, Mr Rose is here.
Faulkner: Send him in right away.

(David Rose comes into the office.)

Faulkner: Hi, David!
Rose: Hi, Harry!
Faulkner: Have a seat.
Rose: Thanks.
Faulkner: You did a nice job in Argentina last month. Congratulations. You handled things very smoothly.
Rose: Thanks.
Faulkner: You – er – you were in Tanaku a couple of years ago, weren't you?
Rose: Yeah. But I only spent a short time there.
Faulkner: Nice country, I hear. Nice beaches. Nice place for a vacation.
Rose: That's right. Are you offering me a vacation, Harry?
Faulkner: Not exactly.
Rose: I didn't think so.
Faulkner: I had a call from our London office a moment ago. A firm of English consultants is going to make a feasibility study in Tanaku. The consultants are Williams and Clarke, and James Clarke is dealing with it.
Rose: What's the project?
Faulkner: I didn't get all the details, but it looks like a big one, David. It includes building a silicon processing plant.
Rose: You want me to find out all about it?
Faulkner: Right.

(The intercom buzzer sounds. Faulkner answers.)

Faulkner: Yes, Nancy?
Nancy: *(on intercom)* It's your call to London. Mr Clarke is out. Will you speak to his assistant?
Faulkner: Certainly. Yeah!

(He picks up the telephone.)

Paul: *(on telephone)* Hello. Can I help you?
Faulkner: Yes. This is Harry Faulkner, Faulkner Enterprises, San Francisco. Is Mr Clarke going to be in London next week?
Paul: *(on telephone)* No. I'm afraid he's away next week. He's leaving on Monday morning.
Faulkner: He's going to Tanaku, isn't he?
Paul: *(on telephone)* Yes. That's right. He'll be back the week after.
Faulkner: Oh, that's all right. Thank you very much. *(putting down the telephone and turning to Rose)* Clarke is going to Tanaku, Monday morning. You're going to be there when he arrives, David.

EX. 9,10,11

(Watanabe is in Ferguson's office, talking on the telephone in Japanese. He finishes his call.)

Watanabe: *(to Ferguson)* Thank you for the use of your telephone.
Ferguson: Not at all. It's a pleasure to see you back in Tanaku, Mr Watanabe.
Watanabe: Thank you. You've been very successful, Mr Ferguson.
Ferguson: Well, I've always done my best to promote Pansil and its products.
Watanabe: You did particularly well with the contract for the telephone exchange. And now there's the silicon project.

(Mrs Jima serves coffee.)

Ferguson: Thank you, Mrs Jima.
Watanabe: Mr Ferguson, I'm rather worried.
Ferguson: Worried?
Watanabe: Yes. Someone is spreading rumours about Pansil and the project.
Ferguson: I haven't heard any rumours.
Watanabe: At the Electronics Fair in New York, I heard that Pansil was going to try to prevent the government of Tanaku from producing its own silicon.
Ferguson: No. Surely not?
Watanabe: Unfortunately, yes. I need hardly say, Mr Ferguson, that the rumour's entirely untrue.
Ferguson: Of course. It's ridiculous!
Watanabe: It is true that at first Pansil wanted to buy the quartz sand. But we understand why Tanaku wishes to produce its own silicon, and we will not try to prevent them from selling any extra silicon they produce.
Now, I would like you to find out if anyone in Tanaku has been responsible for the rumour.
Ferguson: Mr Watanabe, I can assure you I will do my best to find out.
Watanabe: Good. You see, Mr Ferguson, a rumour like this reflects on the honour of my company, and therefore on myself.
Ferguson: Don't worry, Mr Watanabe. This project is too important, for both of us, to let such things happen.
Watanabe: I'm glad you understand.
Now, let's talk about our meeting with Dr Azevedo.

EX. (12),13

(Edward Ferguson comes into the bar with Bettina. At first, they do not notice Christine and Rose.)

Ferguson: This woman is working with the consultant. I must find a way of influencing her.
Bettina: Yes.
Ferguson: *(offering her a drink)* What would you like?

(Before Bettina can reply, Ferguson sees Christine.)

Ferguson: There she is! Dr Walker!
Bettina: Who's she with?
Ferguson: I don't know. But she mustn't see us together. I'll see you later.
Bettina: OK.

(Bettina moves away. Ferguson goes towards Christine and Rose.)

Rose: *(to Christine)* I know the project is important. All I want is information. Then maybe I can help –
Christine: I'm sure the National Development Agency can answer your questions when the time comes. Thanks for the drink.

(She starts to leave Rose just as Ferguson reaches them.)

Ferguson: Dr Walker! How nice to meet you again! Can I buy you a drink?
Christine: Not just now, thank you. But do meet Mr Rose – er – Faulkner Enterprises, San Francisco. This is Mr Ferguson, agent for Pansil, Tokyo. Mr Rose is lonely, Mr Ferguson. He wants someone to talk to. I'm sure the two of you have got a lot in common. Good evening.

EX. 14

(Christine is checking some data in a corner of a laboratory at the HRI. Hardacre comes in, followed by Rose.)

Hardacre: Ah, Christine! There's a friend of yours to see you.
Christine: David!
Rose: Hi, there!
Christine: What on earth brings you here?
Rose: I'm on my way back to the States. I had to stop off in London, so I hired a car. Here I am, and I wanted to let you know how things were going.
Christine: But you do know James Clarke is drawing up the bid specification, not me?
Rose: I'm sure he needs a lot of advice from you. Anyhow, this is just a friendly call. And I wanted to say hello to Professor Hardacre, not just to you. *(to Hardacre)* I was visiting Micrel in Germany, and Karl Engel mentioned the Hampton Research Institute and your agricultural programme.
Hardacre: Ah! How is Karl?
Rose: Oh, he's fine. Fine. And he sends his regards.
Hardacre: Splendid! Look! I'm off now. Why don't you both come to my place for tea?

EX. 15.16

(Azevedo is looking at a letter and proposal from the United Commercial Agency. Ferguson and Silva are with him.)

Ferguson: As you can see, gentlemen, my clients are making a very good offer.

Azevedo: Come now, Mr Ferguson. We are all realists. Your clients are making an offer, yes, but in return they want exclusive rights to buy our sand for a period of twenty years.

Ferguson: With an option to renew the agreement. Yes, that's right.

Silva: Is Pansil ready to sign a contract on the basis of your report?

Ferguson: Well, no. All they want at the moment is a letter of intent, promising the rights.

Silva: Perhaps we can get a better offer, from Europe or the United States, Mr Ferguson.

Ferguson: My clients tell me that this offer is the best you can obtain. It is a very, very realistic offer. May I also remind you that no other group can match the resources of Pansil in this particular field. They make a great many silicon-based products. They need a great deal of quartz. That means more money for Tanaku.

Azevedo: What you say is very interesting, Mr Ferguson, but we are waiting for an expert adviser to arrive. Unfortunately, her plane is late. Can we perhaps adjourn the discussion until tomorrow?

Ferguson: Dr Azevedo, my clients are asking for an early reply. They are looking at other beaches. Surely the matter is very simple? You have quartz sand to sell. My clients wish to buy it, at a fair price. What is there to discuss?

(The internal telephone rings.)

Azevedo: Excuse me. *(answering the telephone)* Yes . . . Thank you. *(turning to Ferguson)* Our expert is here now, Mr Ferguson. Do you mind if she joins us?

Ferguson: Not at all.

Azevedo: *(on the telephone)* Show her in, please.

(He puts the telephone down. Bettina shows Christine into the office.)

Azevedo: Miss Walker! Or rather, Dr Walker! You're very welcome.

Christine: I'm so sorry I'm late. The plane . . .

Azevedo: Never mind. You're just in time.

Silva: Hello, Christine. Welcome back!

Christine: Hello, Manuel.

Azevedo: May I introduce Mr Ferguson, of the Tanaku United Commercial Agency. Dr Christine Walker, of the Hampton Research Institute.

Ferguson: I'm delighted to meet you, Dr Walker.

Christine: How do you do, Mr Ferguson?

Azevedo: *(to Christine)* Would you like some coffee?

Christine: Oh yes, please. That would be lovely.

(Bettina is preparing coffee.)

[ ]

(Later, Bettina takes the coffee into Azevedo's office.)

Christine: Of course, I'm a scientist not a business person. But I can give you my immediate reaction to this offer from Pansil if you wish.
If you're going to sell the sand in an unprocessed state, the offer is probably very fair.

Ferguson: So you can accept it, Dr Azevedo.

Christine: I'm not saying that, Mr Ferguson. On the contrary, I advise Dr Azevedo to refuse it.

Ferguson: What! May I remind you, Dr Walker –

Christine: I'm sorry, Mr Ferguson, but that is my advice. I have a different proposal to discuss with Dr Azevedo and Mr Silva.

Ferguson: A different proposal? What else can Tanaku do but sell its sand?

Azevedo: Mr Ferguson, can we meet again in a day or two? I'm sure you understand.

Ferguson: *(starting to leave)* Very well. You have our offer, Dr Azevedo. You know my clients hope to have an early reply.

Azevedo: *(as Ferguson goes)* Of course. Goodbye, Mr Ferguson. Thank you very much.

Silva: *(serving the coffee)* Well, Christine, what is it? Your coffee – black or white?

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USING ENGLISH EFFECTIVELY IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

by

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USING ENGLISH EFFECTIVELY IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

Dr. Lane F. Birkel

Ball State University

Outline of Presentation

Introduction

Sources of the information presented

- Consulting seminars with executive level management of a large multinational corporation
- Faculty exchanges with Latin American universities

International English

- The concept

Language Problems

- Slang, Jargon, Colloquialisms
- Examples of above - sample business letter
- Contractions
- Use of the negative
- Yes and No

Communication Problems

- Non-verbal communication
- Use of humor
- Pace
- Preparation
- Advance notice
- Role of the listener

Using the Telex

Using the Telephone

Dr. Lane F. Birkel is a Professor of Secondary Education at Ball State University. His work involves the training of prospective educators in instructional strategies and communication. He is also a specialist in intercultural communication and understanding. He applies these skills to training workshops for teachers, administrators, and other school personnel.

Dr. Birkel also works with management seminars for business and industry, developing intercultural communication skills in international management and marketing. He has lived in Europe, and traveled widely in Brazil. He has also served in an administrative capacity with the Indiana Export and International Business project and with the Ball State University School of Continuing Education.

Dr. Birkel is on the Board of Directors of the Central Indiana Chapter of the American Society for Training and Development, and of the Partners of the Americas-Indiana

ON THE ENGLISHES USED IN WRITTEN BUSINESS COMMUNICATIONS ACROSS CULTURES: CAN READERS TELL THE DIFFERENCE? AND DOES IT MATTER?

by

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On the Englishes used in written business communications across cultures: Implications for transnational marketing direct by mail*

Current estimates vary regarding the global spread and use of English, but observers agree that non-native speakers of English (NNS) currently outnumber native speakers (NS). While for a majority of NNS and NS the need to communicate on a global scale does not now exist, as international marketers are becoming aware, recent developments have converged to put technological mechanisms in place for an explosive increase in transnational direct marketing.[1]

Fueled by the rapid growth in recent years of credit cards within international networks (such as VISA, American Express), other international payment mechanisms (such as international business reply mail) and international toll free telephone numbers, the international marketplace is booming. Articles on transnational direct marketing are appearing in trade magazines such as Direct Marketing, with writers like Ralston (1988, 114) predicting that "English-speaking credit cardholders worldwide will become a single direct response consumer market" and that "use of English will be dominant". As an increasing number of international firms expand their markets to become transnational direct marketers, and NNS and NS marketers adopt methods previously proven successful among American NS marketers, problems related to the varieties of English used by in marketing communications will become increasingly important.

Several researchers of cross-cultural communication in English, using differing theoretical frameworks and methodologies, have found that the "intelligibility" or "comprehensibility" of the English used (following Smith and Nelson, 1985[2]) alone is not sufficient for understanding; for maximal communicative success, audiences must also be able to draw appropriate inferences from the text (e.g., Smith 1987a, Bouton, 1988 forthcoming; Haneda and Shima 1981). Since the success of transnational direct mail marketing depends on worldwide *similarities* in markets for products or services, regardless of their point of origin (Ralston1988, 32), responsibility for making texts "interpretable" across cultures inevitably falls to copywriters who must take into account-and exploit-sociolinguistic factors which influence consumers' receptivity to an offer.

This paper reports on a pilot experimental study which was designed to help identify some linguistic issues that may be relevant to the success of written sales and ordinary business communications. The study extends the author's previous investigation of cross-cultural differences in the pragmatic understandings used to interpret direct mail advertising communications (1988, forthcoming). Using an experimental approach and methodology, the study explores -on a small scale-some factors which may influence the "appropriateness" of English used in two commercial contexts. It also attempts to address the question suggested by Tarone and Yule (1987) for future research: "how successful are (speakers from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds who use communication strategies differentially) in transmitting intended information to listeners from other native language backgrounds?" (p. 64)

A questionnaire was administered to both NS and NNS in order to determine, first, whether there are differences in ability to identify NS and NNS originated texts, and the authors' intent (interpretability of the text), and second, how NS and NNS readers' familiarity with advertising contexts and/or non-native varieties may affect their understanding of the contents, hence communicative outcomes. Based on the author's experience and previous findings, it was expected that:

(1) NS subjects' would be better able than NNS to distinguish between texts written by NS or NNS writers.

(2) NS subjects would be better able than NNS to identify marketing promotion letters as compared to informational business letters

(3) Both NS and NNS would rate NS identified texts more positively and would judge texts perceived to be written by NNS as less acceptable.

(4) Both NS and NNS would rate texts interpreted to be sales offers as less acceptable, regardless of origination.

Background Theory and Research

Of the many linguistic studies which bear on NS-NNS communications, the most relevant are those which focus on differences in language users' expectations with regard to "good" written discourse (e.g., Clyne 1987), or breakdowns in NS-NNS verbal interactions (e.g., Gumperz 1978). Both of these studies illustrate Smith's (1987b, 5) point that miscommunication across cultures in English result from accepting the erroneous hypothesis that ..."when English is the common language, one can expect the words, sentences, and discourse to have common meaning across cultures". However, equally relevant are those studies (e.g., Kachru 1986) which deal with the sociolinguistic variables related to varietal differences in English. These show how nativized varieties which are distinguished by their stylistic, syntactic and pragmatic features are clearly not a communicative burden for their users.

There is general agreement that the appropriateness of communications in social contexts (following Gumperz and Hymes' notion of communicative competency, 1972) is dependent on a variety of factors, not least of which are "errors" which may render a phrase or sentence incomprehensible, as Dulay and Burt note (1982). However, as they also note, the number of studies which study the communicative effect of these errors are relatively few (p. 189). Moreover, a search of the literature on the factors which influence NS-NNS communications failure reveals few studies of communicative effect, regardless of the researcher's theoretical perspective. More often, one encounters research which investigates NS vs NNS proficiency with regard to one or another component of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic or strategic.[3]

One such recent study is Bouton's (1988 forthcoming), which explores NS vs NNS differences in interpreting a written text. Overall, he concludes that cultural background plays an important role in predicting relative success in drawing appropriate inferences from utterances. Another study is that of Tarone and Yule (1987) who investigate NNS and NS differing communicative strategies and levels of proficiency in mastering sociolinguistic skills.

In addition to the above research, given the complexity of the subject, it is also necessary to extend the scope of inquiry to include cross-cultural differences in language attitudes, the practical implications of variational differences in use of English, and those which deal specifically with "advertising language" and the features which appear to typify this genre of communication. In many cases, this requires a crossing of disciplinary boundaries.

Particularly valuable are the insights provided by social psychologists regarding language attitudes (Ryan and Giles, 1982), "speech communication" studies which investigate cross-cultural differences in written business communications (Haneda and Shima, 1981) and marketing texts which address international direct marketing strategies (Dillon, 1976). Also pertinent, although comparatively few in number, are linguistic analyses of advertising media. The majority of studies within the last two decades are pragmatics or speech act theory-based (eg. Geis, 1982; Vestergaard and Schroeder, 1986) or approach the subject from the perspective of discourse analysis (e.g., Goffman 1981 on "Radio talk"; Lakoff 1981 on television commercials). Among these, but rare, are studies which have addressed cross-cultural differences in the communicative styles and strategies of NNS speakers in marketing contexts specifically (Masavisut et al, 1986; Tsuda 1984).

Description of The Study

Subjects:

To test the hypotheses concerning perceived differences between NS and NNS originated text, I used native and non-native educated English speakers as subjects. I wanted the groups to be approximately equal in size, in educational level/experience, and in range of their familiarity with differing varieties of business correspondence. Thus, all subjects were drawn from a pool of students attending Georgetown University known to the interviewer to be pursuing degrees in Linguistics.

Group 1: Non-native English speakers (NNS)

This group was made up of 15 NNS speakers from the following countries: Greece, Denmark, Brazil, The Philipines, Japan, Indonesia, Finland, Jordan, China, Yugoslavia. The subjects ranged in terms of their residence in the U.S., from as little as two months at the time the survey was taken, to as many as ten years; the average term of residency for the group was 3.6 years. All subjects had completed a Bachelors Degree, and 50% of the students had completed a Masters Degree and were PhD candidates. Subjects in this group were familiar with linguistic analyses, and in varying degrees, with American and British varieties of English. As a group, they were also somewhat less familiar with direct response solicitations and direct mail media, compared to Group 2 (this information gleaned from Part 2 of the survey).

Group 2: Native English speakers (NS)

This group was made up of 15 NS of American English, 90% of whom had completed a Bachelors degree or higher. All reported English as their "native tongue", although their ethnicity varied. All were assumed to be users of "American English"[4], as well as familiar with mailed direct response advertising offers.

Data:

Four kinds of representative text segments were chosen, each sample comprising the introductory paragraph or first 50 words of a business letter. These examples were drawn from business correspondence of two types: advertising sales letters and everyday correspondence, to total 20 samples:

Group 1.) NNS written direct mail advertising offers, originating in:
(2) Hong Kong (1) India
Group 2.) NNS written business correspondence, originating in:
(2) Japan (1) Hong Kong (1) France (1) U.S.
Group 3) NS written direct mail advertising offers, originating in
(2) England (4) U.S. (2) Canada
Group 4) NS written business correspondence, originating in:
(1) Canada (3) England

The less than equal proportion of NNS originated texts and business correspondence as a category overall (40% in both) reflects their less than equal representation in real life, as well as the difficulties in obtaining representative samples.

The numbers of direct mail advertising offers across cultures in English are relatively few, compared to the volume of direct mail offers originating in native English speaking countries which are destined for "home" consumption. Further, the volume of ordinary business correspondence in English is greater than that intended to sell products and services.

Test Instrument:

To accomplish the aims of the pilot study, I designed a two-part questionnaire (see Appendix A). The first part contained 20 Sample Texts (per above data description), each followed by a series of closed and open-ended questions. The second part (last page of the survey) required subjects' to provide biographical information and self-report their degree of exposure and level of response to (primarily mailed) direct sales and marketing solicitations. Since this was a pilot study, a range of questions and question formats were used--both closed and open-ended, direct and indirect--to gain some insight into the most profitable and/or viable ways of directing future research.

Part 1: Questions designed to elicit subjects' responses in four general categories:

a) identification of writer's primary intent (interpretability):

This close-ended question was designed to force readers to choose among three responses. The choices were predicated on the assumption that, most simplistically, the meanings behind the words could be inferred from the text as either "the author intended to inform" (to provide information) or "intended to prompt the reader to take action" ("to persuade..."). The latter is the primary intent of direct response marketing communications, regardless of the vehicle (broadcast or print). However, the phrase "to persuade to take action" was chosen because it was judged less likely to skew the subject's response. (compare "to persuade you to buy or order", or "to sell you products or services. The third alternative "*I have no idea* " was offered as a choice to readers who were unable to discern the writers' intention.

b) rating of the writer's use of language (language attitudes):

The subjects evaluated the contents of each passage by three criteria deemed relevant to a description of the text, and ranked each factor on a 5-point differential scale ranging from "yes" to "no". The factors were: message clarity (comprehensibility); language proficiency of the writer (competence); perceived distance of the writer's language from that held as "correct" by the reader (acceptability).

c) level of commitment:

The subjects were asked to subjectively assess their willingness to read the entire letter, based on this short segment, in order to indirectly gain information pertinent to the acceptability of the contents.

d) writer's identification as English L1 or L2 user:

Readers were asked to judge whether the author was a non-native speaker of English, or a native speaker, in two possible categories: American or non-American.

Part 2: Subjects were first asked to enter basic biographical information, including birthplace, number of years residing in the U.S., native language, and language currently spoken more than 50% of the time. The second half of the sheet asked subjects to self-report and rate their level of exposure and prior responses to direct response marketing offers received in the mail and by telephone.

Procedure:

Subjects were requested to complete the questionnaire at their own pace, and without direct supervision. A brief period of time was spent with each subject to ensure that the instructions were understood (the instructions for filling out the survey were also printed on the cover sheet of each packet). Subjects were assured of anonymity, and encouraged to note any additional comments or provide whatever additional information they thought necessary to make their evaluations clear. In a few instances these comments were augmented by conversations which occurred at the time respondents turned in their questionnaires, and these comments were noted immediately following the conversation. All surveys were completed within a three-week period (Oct/Nov 1987) and delivered directly to the author, who tabulated the results and takes responsibility for all errors.

Given the sample size, and the purposes of the study, statistical analyses was considered inappropriate. It was decided that measures of frequency and percentages would suffice to describe the responses.

Findings and Discussion

HYPOTHESIS 1.

When asked whether the sample of writing was produced by a NNS or NS speaker of English, two-thirds of the time, on average, both groups of subjects were able to make a correct match. NS averaged 15 correct matches out of 20, and NNS averaged 12.8 correct matches out of 20. However, the first hypothesis proposed, that NS would be better able to distinguish between NS and NNS originated texts, was only partially supported.

While it was found that both NS and NNS were approximately equal in their ability to identify NS written texts, the groups varied in their ability to identify NNS written texts. The totals were balanced to reflect the proportionate numbers of texts in different categories. The percentages for correct matches by status of reader compared to originator of texts are:

%NS Subjects correctly matching NS texts=62.9 NNS texts=45.6
%NNS Subjects correctly matching NS texts=60.0 NNS texts=30.0

My interpretation of these results are that NS and NNS are about equally able to identify texts as written by NS, but that NS on average are more sensitive to NNS varieties. As a possible extension of this, one might conjecture that NNS audiences (assuming they are less able to discriminate between "standard and non-standard" varieties) might be less influenced by the NS/NNS factor when evaluating written texts. On the other hand, this outcome also suggests that NS as well as NNS are aware of varietal differences, and are more able to discern those texts which meet their expectations regarding L1 proficiency in writing.

This explanation is reinforced by the actual number of correct matches, i.e., NS and NNS relative ability to correctly identify authors as specifically American or non-American NS. NS had 30% more correct matches than NNS.

Additionally, the results suggest that subjects in both groups are most proficient when identifying certain texts. There were six samples that 3/4 of the subjects (that is, 25 or more of the 30 subjects queried) were able to match correctly. All were written by NS, five of the six were sales letters, and only one of the six was British... the other five were written by Americans or Canadians. This outcome suggests that both NS and NNS may be especially sensitive to texts which not only conform to native speaker norms, but meet their expectations with regard to written marketing (sales) communications.

This interpretation is supported by my findings with regard to the second hypothesis.

HYPOTHESIS 2.

The second hypothesis predicted that NS would be better able than NNS in identifying promotional (sales) correspondence, and this hypothesis was supported by the results. Question #1 asked subjects to determine the primary purpose of the letter, based on its first paragraph or equivalent. Readers could choose "to provide information"; "to persuade to take action"; "I have no idea". When subjects' responses to this question were tabulated, and matched against the known categories for each text sample (NS or NNS written, Business or marketing), it was found that NS made 18% more correct matches than NNS overall, and that they made 36% more correct matches than NNS when the author's intent was sales, and 14% more when the author's intent was to inform.

One possible explanation for these differences is that NS are simply more familiar with written direct response offers in general, so that they are better able to identify them when they see them out of context. In anticipation that some additional support for this speculation would be needed, subjects were asked to evaluate their experience in a variety of situations, primarily those involving their responses to direct mail solicitations (bottom portion, Part 2 of the questionnaire attached). Respondents ranked their degree of exposure, and expected reaction, to seven situations involving this kind of media on a five point scale ranging from "never" (1) to "always" (5). The statements ranged from those involving receipt of sales letters and catalogs, to opening and reading all mail, to reported level of purchases by mail, to responses to mail and phone surveys. For example: "I respond to marketing surveys___by mail___by telephone" (1=never, 2=occasionally 3=frequently, 4=most of the time, 5=always). Subjects' responses were tallied and divided by seven to get average marketing strategy "familiarity" scores per person.

As might be expected, NS scores (average 2.57) were higher than NNS scores (average 2.39), although the small number of subjects preclude strong claims regarding the significance of this difference. Moreover, when responses to the statement "I purchase products or or services through the mail" were compared, 22 out of 30 subjects reported "occasionally"; with the remaining subjects fairly evenly divided at the extremes ("never" or "most of the time" or "always")

Also, though this could not be pursued, the responses suggested an inverse relation between level of exposure to direct mail offers and subjects' decisions to open and read all mail regardless of origin or packaging. (Statements a,b compared to c,d). That is, with increased exposure to items which "in context" are identifiable as sales there may come decreased receptivity to marketing offers, regardless of the NS or NNS status of readers at the outset or their ability to match words to intent once they've read the material.

Another possible explanation for NS' subjects ability to correctly identify intent, and persuasive discourse in particular, in these sample texts is that NS may expect a linear as opposed to digressive organizational structure. That is, they are comfortable with looking for-and finding-the presentation of the "main point" early on in the discourse. Kaplan (172, 1976) proposed that discourse types are related to genetic language types and Western notions regarding the norms for logical thinking. Clyne (1987) on the other hand presents evidence that differences may have more to do with "world view", i.e., are culturally conditioned. Regardless, the idea that readers' backgrounds influence their expectations is critical, since both NS and NNS writers depend on readers' ability to accurately infer intentions.

If readers will look for intentions in places other than where writers expect them to for clues, the effectiveness of the communication will surely be jeopardized. One way to test this possibility, in an indirect way, is to determine the number of subjects (by status, NS or NNS) who chose "I have no idea" when asked to guess the primary purpose of the text, then relate these choices to known information about the text (business or marketing letters, written by NS or NNS).

First, NNS chose "I have no idea" 30% more often than NS whether the letter was written by a NS or a NNS. Hover, while approximately 16.5% of the answers overall were "I have no idea", their distribution was not evenly divided between NS and NNS. Texts written by NS or NNS, when read by NS, were relatively more easily categorized as either "informational" or "sales" letters out of context (ie., on the basis of first paragraph wording alone) compared to texts written by NS or NNS and read by NNS. That is, NNS were apt to choose this response more frequently than NS, regardless of the source of the text.

Moreover, as one might expect, NS readers have the easiest time inferring authors' intentions (the meaning behind the text, or its "interpretability", when the writer is also a NS. Only about 3% of NS readers who chose "I don't know" did so when the author was also NS, compared to almost twice that percent of NNS readers who chose that response for NS originated text.

Further, there seems to be relatively greater difficulty in determining intent, when the text is written by a NNS, regardless of the language status of the reader, though this difficulty seems to be most highly associated with NNS interpreting NNS written texts. Both NS and NNS chose "I have no idea" less often when the text was written by a NS (about 8.% vs. 14%), and about 30% more of the time this choice was made by NNS for texts written by NNS.

Although my interpretation of these results can only be tentative, I would suggest they point to two important, and potential equally valid explanations. The first, and one which supports my earlier claim that accuracy in matching is tied to readers ability to isolate writers' intentions, is that however English is spoken world-wide, the way it is perceived to be best communicated in business writing is to conform to Western ideals with regard to structure (main point first). The second explanation, also supported by these results, is that NNS may be more reluctant to categorize writers' intentions when determinations cannot be made with certainty.

If the response "I have no idea" by reader or writer status (NS/NNS) is related to type of text (ordinary business correspondence or sales letter), interesting and contradictory patterns emerge from the data. The number of times a NS subject would choose "I have no idea" when the text actually represents an attempt to provide information, is less likely when the text is written by a NS. This is even more apparent when the text is intended to prompt action. Only two of 15 NS subjects chose "I have no idea" when the aim was sales, and it was written by a NNS. Yet NNS were three times as likely to choose this response when the object was provision of information.

As additional support for this argument, the number of times readers chose this answer for business letters was about equally divided in between NS/NNS texts. In other words, business correspondence is not necessarily related to- nor is it seen as a particularly NS or NNS activity. Yet when the totals are compared for business vs marketing letters, taking into account whether they are NS or NNS written, the differences are extreme: four times more frequently than sales letters, business letters were not able to be identified as such by readers (56 instances of this choice vs 15).

HYPOTHESIS 3 and 4.

The third and fourth hypothesis concerned NS/NNS differences in evaluating NS originated texts: I expected that both groups would rate texts identified as NS-written, or promotional in purpose, more positively than texts written by NNS and informational in purpose. To determine this, I calculated the results of question (b), by status of reader compared to the source and purpose of the text. Responses on the five-point scale were given equivalent 1-5 points (1=yes, 2=mostly, 3=acceptable, 4=marginally, 5=no) then were tabulated for each of the three statements. I also tallied the answers to question (c), which asked readers to report their inclination to read the rest of the letter, based on the (given) first paragraph.

In almost every case it turned out that NNS readers rated texts as less acceptable. That is, they rated the texts less clear (2.19 vs 1.81), the authors less educated (2.12 vs 1.93) but perceived the English as sounding "more right" to them (2.21 vs 2.45), regardless of the source of the text or its purpose. Why NNS should be more demanding and/or harsher critics of texts is unknown. However, when the responses are broken down by writer and reader status, the findings provide further information. And, to the point, they only partially support the hypotheses.

As the charts below show, the groups differ in their evaluations of the letters written by NS, although highest rating is given by NS to sales letters written by NS.

Does the writer make sense? Is the message clear?

Bus. texts by NS	Bus. texts by NNS	Mktg texts by NS	Mktg texts by NNS
rated by NS=2.2	rated by NS=1.98	rated by NS=1.19	rated by NS=2.4
rated by NNS=2.5	rated by NNS=2.2	rated by NNS=1.89	rated by NNS=2.5

Does the writer "know" English? Educated?

Bus. texts by NS	Bus. texts by NNS	Mktg texts by NS	Mktg texts by NNS
rated by NS=1.86	rated by NS=2.4	rated by NS=1.5	rated by NS=1.8
rated by NNS=2.3	rated by NNS=2.2	rated by NNS=2.5	rated by NNS=2.5

Does the wording sound "right" to me

Bus. texts by NS	Bus. texts by NNS	Mktg texts by NS	Mktg texts by NNS
rated by NS=2.5	rated by NS=2.5	rated by NS=1.7	rated by NS=1.8
rated by NNS=3.1	rated by NNS=2.4	rated by NNS=3.2	rated by NNS=2.6

It seems that the largest differences are found between NS and NNS readers' estimates of message clarity and the "rightness" of the wording compared to the purpose of the letter. The smallest differential was found between NS and NNS estimates regarding the author's education and knowledge of English. Extrapolating from these results, one might conjecture that texts can "read" as if they were written by relatively less educated persons, not make a lot of sense, and still sound acceptably "right" more of the time to NNS than to NS. This paradoxical situation is explainable if language attitudes play a greater role in determining the acceptability of texts for NNS readers.

Unlike NS readers, the NNS readers evaluated sales offers less positively than business communications, regardless of the text's origin. However, when NNS readers' ratings of texts by type (to provide information or to persuade to action) were tallied, some interesting differences across criteria were found. For example, while there was little difference in the way NS subjects viewed the "rightness" of texts written by NS or NNS (1.7 vs. 1.8), for this criterion NNS gave a higher rating to the promotional texts written by NNS vs NS. Conversely, the greatest difference was found between the ratings given by NS to NNS and NS sales texts with regard to the texts' clarity and "education" of the writer. Yet for NNS readers, the writer's status had little relation to their evaluation of the texts' acceptability.

Question (c) required readers to estimate their interest in reading the rest of the letter, based on their perceptions of the first paragraph. Subjects' responses to this question were sorted by NS and NNS, by type of letter, and source-NS or NNS composed texts. The findings suggest that both NS and NNS subjects are less likely to be interested in reading letters to their conclusion when they determine them to be sales letters, and that communications-regardless of type-are more critically evaluated by NNS. One third more of those saying "Yes" to the statement "Based on this 1st paragraph, I would be inclined to read the rest of this letter" did so when they had also perceived the letter to be ordinary business correspondence. Further, it is even more apparent from subjects' responses that NNS originated sales letters would be the least acceptable form and source of communication. Only about 8% of those 40% who would continue to read a sales letter would do so when the text was perceived to have been written by a NNS. This result is in contrast to the approximately 30% percent of readers who said they would read the letter if it was a business letter written by a NNS or a sales letter written by a NS.

This result is surprising, given the comments made by several respondents with regard to their choosing the author of the text. Whether or not they accurately identified the author, or the author's intent, they were generally harsh in their comments when they said "native speaker, American" and stated their reasons for their choice. Phrases like "sounds like millions of other letters....similar to "junk mail" I get all the time...sounds like TV...overstatement, exaggerated claims, overly aggressive" were common. On the other hand, letters judged to be written by NNS were described as "just too formal or flowery...awkward, halting grammar...stilted expression... too complicated in expression". Yet, despite readers' disdain for texts judged to be NS' American, and relatively greater tolerance for those judged to be NNS, when asked if they would read the rest of the letter a greater number of NS and NNS subjects preferred to continue reading sales letters if they were written by NS.

Conclusions and Directions for Further Research

While currently varieties of English pose few communicative problems for speakers within non-native English speaking countries, as English spreads around the globe, the volume of cross-cultural marketing will be limited only by the mass media and distribution capabilities of non-native English speaking countries. And, and as telecom and surface communications improve, marketing across cultures will rise proportionately. This pilot study suggests that readers' ability to differentiate NS and NNS originated texts and their differences in perceptions of English may influence their receptivity to cross-cultural *but English -based* promotional campaigns...with wider educational and economic implications.

While it is clear that such a narrow study cannot provide definitive conclusions, the results point to real areas of concern for educators and businesspeople (among others) whose primary goal is communicative success, whether it is the provision of information or sales of product. While the interpretability of differing Englishes clearly cannot be assessed in this kind of limited study, it seems fairly reasonable to assume on the basis of the data collected that even such "context free" determinations as those made by the subjects participating in this study are being influenced by factors that go beyond perceptions of language intelligibility or comprehensibility.

In sum, it may not be differences, but attitudes toward those differences that may play a large role in determining the acceptance and effect of English varieties is cross-cultural contexts. The issue is not whether distinctions can be made between intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability as Sajavaara (1987) suggests, but rather to what degree perceptions of differences exist and what relative importance is attributed to these levels of meaning by speakers whose livelihood depends on communicative success.

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Notes

1. See, for example, Direct Marketing magazine, April 1988, with articles such as Ralston's on "Transnational Direct Marketing"; or Sanghavi's on "International 800: An update on New Strategic Initiatives"

2. The terms "intelligibility", "comprehensibility" and "interpretability" are disambiguated by the authors (p. 334) in order to help clarify the differing levels of meaning which constrain cross-cultural communication. They define intelligibility as word/utterance recognition, comprehensibility as word/utterance meaning (locutionary force), and interpretability as the meaning behind words/utterances (illocutionary force). Of these criteria, the last two are relevant to this study.

3. following Canale and Swain's tripartite model (1980). They propose three components of communicative competence: grammatical competence (the knowledge of what is grammatically correct in a language; sociolinguistic competence (the knowledge of what is socially aceptable in a language; strategic competence (the knowledge of how to use communcation strategies to communicate intended meaning.

4. I use the terms American English and British English here for convenience only. However, these labels, like other handy linguistic "portmanteaux" such as Indian English", "African English", which are used to designate nativized varieties of English, are not meant to imply uniformity in the variety or in linguistic competence.

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BRIDGING LANGUAGE: MEETING THE ENGLISH NEEDS OF INTERNATIONAL PROFESSIONALS

by

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Bridging Language: Meeting the English Needs of International Professionals

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As a Fulbright scholar in Peru in 1987, I was asked to address the problem of English-language instruction which, in the view of many host nationals, only minimally prepares people for using English in professional settings. (I encountered the same problem in teaching/ teacher-training experiences in China and Brazil several years ago.) For a variety of reasons, English-language students (future and practicing professionals) receive instruction in certain areas of non-technical English, and through classes or on their own, learn the field-specific vocabulary of, e.g., banking, engineering, or forestry. However, they often lack the bridging elements--the non-technical but "academic" elements of English which cross disciplines and link concepts together--terms such as concurrent or Generally speaking, verbs such as refer to or to emphasize which recur in unified spoken and written English discourse. Thus the professionals are unable to communicate professional ideas, solve problems, or interact with others as effectively as they could.

The ideas presented here draw on a number of overseas sources--curricula, textbooks, materials used at various language institutes and universities; conversations and workshops with students, instructors, administrators, teacher-trainers, and professionals; combined with my years of experience as an ESL/EFL teacher, materials developer, textbook evaluator and writer, and teacher-trainer.

The paper begins with a brief analysis of various English language needs of professionals abroad, focusing on the role of vocabulary in language proficiency. Then a preliminary framework is presented for isolating and identifying "overlooked" elements which bridge non-technical and technical vocabulary. These elements, important in the training of overseas professionals in many fields, will be examined in several examples of native-speaker discourse and then in excerpts of non-native-speaker writing about professional concepts.

What English language skills do overseas professionals need? It used to be thought that a professional merely needed to be able to read English, e.g., an engineer had to read technical specifications, an agronomist needed to read agricultural reports, a banker needed to read financial statements. University-level education overseas encouraged (in many cases, still encourages) this skill of reading, through English curricula in specialized reading. In many universities overseas, English teachers have students read and translate highly technical journal articles (some out of date due to limited access to recent materials).

As professionals (and many teachers) have long since become aware, the needs go far beyond discipline-specific reading and translation. Many need to understand spoken English and to converse in English about issues in their field; some need to write English, whether in internal memos, reports, or transactions; and some even need to prepare ideas for international presentation in spoken or written form, when the expected language for exchange of ideas is often English.

Underlying the four traditional language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) are a number of basic components of language, including vocabulary, the focus of this paper.

The vocabulary which professionals overseas need is varied. Certainly they need the vocabulary specific to their discipline: the mechanical engineer needs terms for engine parts, mechanical movements, etc. The agronomist may need terms for types of trees or soil. The bank manager may need to know concepts referring to international business or data management. This is the vocabulary typically found in the glossary or in exercises in English-for-specific-purposes texts. Focus is primarily on nouns and verbs, perhaps some phrases or special expressions, less commonly on adverbs or adjectives. Students make a conscious effort to learn this vocabulary before they become professionals and continue to learn new items on the job as the vocabulary changes or their jobs change. This vocabulary will be referred to as professional or technical vocabulary, concepts which are discipline-specific.

An examination of native-speaker texts from a variety of fields will disclose technical vocabulary in each. Text A concerns management, Text B discusses technology and managment, and Text C (spoken discourse) discusses a forestry concern.

Technical vocabulary in A includes, but is not limited to: quantitative analysis, practicing managers, team of specialists, quantitative techniques, companywide issues, operations research (OR).

Text A

Other developments in quantitative analysis are being brought forth by researchers and are rapidly being adopted by practicing managers. In fact, the approach of a team of specialists, working together to frame quantitative techniques for making decisions on companywide issues, has led to the creation of a new analytical profession called operations research (OR). The limits of operations research are ill-defined because its applications are continually breaking out of previously conceived frameworks and deal with a wide range of problems including defense systems, outer space, and management. (Massie, 1979)

Text B

The plant is divided into two parts: a labor-intensive assembly line and four capital-intensive machining areas. The latter areas, called "transfer lines," constitute the heart of the plant where raw castings are shaped into major, tight-tolerance engine parts. Each transfer line can be as big as a football field, and costs between $10 and $20 million....

In fact, workforce "churning"--created by workers who leave the company or are promoted--has become a leading concern among production managers, some of whom feel that the initial selection process yielded overqualified workers. Turnover for hourly workers was 30 percent in 1984 and 23 percent in 1985. Termination owing to absenteeism accounted for over a third of the 1985 turnover. (Shaiken, 1988, pp. 41-47)

Text C

From an ecological point of view, the pine trees perform a very useful function by providing a lot of protection to the soil surface immediately within the canopy. Under this tree you can see the pine litter is already becoming decomposed and being incorporated into the soil. And the soil itself is becoming nice and friable and loose, which contrasts very strongly with the harsh environment immediately outside the canopy of the tree. And underneath this tree, the environment has been improved to such an extent that...a broad-leafed tree has already become well and truly established. (Don Gilmour, Australian forestry consultant in Nepal, in "Will the World Starve?," 1987)

In B, technical vocabulary includes labor-intensive assembly line, capital-intensive machining areas, "transfer lines," raw castings, tight tolerance; production managers, selection process, overqualified, turnover, hourly workers, termination, absenteeism. Text C contains these forestry terms or expressions: soil surface, canopy, decomposed and incorporated into the soil, friable, harsh environment, broad-leafed tree, become established, among others.

On the other end of the vocabulary spectrum is a vast lexicon of "general" English. This includes everything from survival English, to colloquial street language, to vocabulary used widely by semi-educated to educated persons who have learned some English. The professional overseas needs this vocabulary for many purposes. Even in the most technical context, there are words which are part of the basic lexicon of English. This vocabulary is emphasized and practiced in every basic textbook of English and forms a vital part of communication in English. Whether the professional is engaged in conversation, reading an article in English, reading a box label, that vocabulary is essential.

In the text samples by native speakers, this general vocabulary is relatively easy to identify, though sometimes an item may be both general and technical/professional within a certain context or purpose. Some instances of general vocabulary in the texts are: A--developments, adopted, working together, making decisions, applications, defense systems, outer space; B--parts, areas, created by, as big as, 30 percent, over a third of, $20 million; C--pine trees, providing, protection, under this tree you can see. The purpose here is not to label all of the general vocabulary or draw sharp lines but to suggest that there is still another type of vocabulary hidden in discourse, a type which is often overlooked in second-language instruction.

This vocabulary not yet classified is as essential as either of the other two types mentioned, yet probably is the most neglected. It is the bridge between professional/technical and general/non-technical vocabulary; for that reason I call it bridging language or bridging vocabulary.It would appear to be the missing link referred to by a Peruvian bank manager who had studied in a binational center for years, and continued his English studies in highschool and the university. Even though he had continued to read and study on his own and used some English on the job, he still felt inadequate. As he put it: "I know all the words in English, but I can't put them together." Similarly, a visiting scholar in information management from Yugoslavia, upon receiving back a professional paper written for a professor in her field, commented: "I need the expressions to put my ideas into." Despite her high proficiency in spoken and written English, she sensed a missing element or bridge in her discourse.

With technical and non-technical vocabulary already identified, bridging vocabulary begins to emerge. In the native-speaker texts, there are words and expressions which are neither discipline-specific terms nor "general" vocabulary. They tie those two together yet are usually neither. (Clearly it is an oversimplification to divide vocabulary into three seemingly distinct groups. There are overlaps, terms that are professional in one context, more general in another. Some of the bridging vocabulary elements may be considered part of the general vocabulary, high-frequency links such as verbs and transitions. Distinctions are made here for purposes of discussion, not for definitive classification.)

In some situations, this vocabulary is called part of "academic English." I first used the term "academic" in the 1970s (Martin, 1976) with reference to vocabulary, and the term academic is now a designation in the title of many ESL and native-speaker texts and articles (especially regarding reading and writing). Bridging vocabulary is certainly "academic," but its use goes beyond the academic environment to the workplace and to non-professional contexts as well.

There seem to be many types of bridging vocabulary, some of which are treated extensively in ESL instruction, some which are not. The following classification is preliminary, an effort to shed light on the pervasiveness, complexity, and importance of bridging vocabulary.

One type of bridging vocabulary is transitions--those expressions which are non-essential grammatically but which function as useful signals of relationships between ideas. These include in addition, therefore, next, and others. Transitions are very important, especially in written or formal spoken English, but they tend to get coverage in teaching materials, perhaps in part because they are easy to put into lists. There are some transitions, however, which are less common and thus sometimes overlooked in such lists. A recurring example in the three native-speaker samples is *in fact*.

Another type of bridging vocabulary is adjectives and adverbs which add evaluative comment or a sense of time, magnitude, quantity or quality. Again, these are not *structurally* essential, but they help a reader or listener better understand the ideas. Examples from the samples are A--*rapidly*, *ill-defined*, *continually*, *previously*; B--*latter*, *leading*, *initial*; C--*strongly*. Others such as *major*, *useful*, *wide* are higher frequency and may be considered part of general vocabulary.

A third set is phrases, particularly noun phrases and various prepositional phrases. Some are part on one's general vocabulary (e.g., *as big as* in C). Bridge noun phrases in the samples include: A--*the creation of*, *a range of*; B--*a (leading) concern among*, and others. Other expressions which begin with or contain a preposition include *owing to* in B, and *from (X) point of view* and *to such an extent* (often before a *that* clause), both found in C.

Such phrases are critical in the explanation of professional ideas yet rarely are taught explicitly in ESL. Usually they are grammmatically essential, and certainly they transmit important meaning and relationships between ideas.

By far the largest group of bridging vocabulary in the samples is verb structures. Again it is worth noting that these phrases are not used in only one field but rather across disciplines. Thus, like all bridging language, they not only bridge language use within a piece of discourse but also bridge or cross field boundaries. Bridging verbs (given as infinitives) found in the sample texts include: A--*to bring forth*, *to lead to*, *to be called*, *to break out of*, *to deal with*; *to be divided into*, *to constitute*, *to yield*, *to account for* in B; and in C--*to perform (a function)*, *to contrast with*.

Bridging verbs can in turn be divided into sets, for example, according to the relationship they carry. The samples include verbs that convey cause or result (*bring forth*, *yield*, *account for*, *lead to*); parts of a group (*constitute*, *divide into*); contrast (*to contrast with*); definition (*to be called*); and others. There are many other members of each set, and many other ways to group bridging verbs. However they are grouped, they are important in teaching and provide opportunities to work on tense, active versus passive voice, and other grammatical concerns.

Certainly there are other sets of bridging vocabulary, instances of which did not emerge from the target texts of native-speaker discourse. For example, there is an important set found in introducing and concluding ideas. The selections used here were randomly selected from the middles of discourse; other samples might have yielded such transitions and structures as finally, in conclusion, from the outset, it is recommended that, etc. Another set revolves around research, and might include such items as validate, positive relationships, to cite. There are also grammatical structures such as subordinating words and phrases which might be viewed as bridging language. Certainly items like although, as a result of tie ideas together. However, most are high-frequency elements of general (especially written) English discourse as well as treated extensively in ESL teaching and therefore are not a primary concern of this paper.

Bridging language, then, is not specific to any particular discipline, though certain items and phrasings may be used more in discourse in one field than in another. Nor is bridging vocabulary solely part of the general vocabulary which second-language learners of English are taught for use in daily situations, although some of the high-frequency expressions may be of general use. Bridging language is the link between general, non-technical vocabulary and professional/technical vocabulary. It is essential to clear, effective expression of ideas in a professional context. It serves a variety of functions, some of which are: to clarify, develop, support ideas; to introduce, re-express, summarize ideas; to show relationships (e.g., contrast, addition, cause and effect, classification) between ideas. Without mastery of bridging vocabulary, a non-native speaker of English is not fully proficient; and a professional may not be able to communicate ideas as effectively as he or she might.

If one examines non-native speaker discourse in English, one finds evidence of this problem. High-intermediate to advanced students tend to control a range of technical and general vocabulary and to try to use bridging vocabulary, encountering difficulty with the latter.

Two texts are presented here for examination. Text D was written by a graduate student in chemistry, a researcher from China.

Text E was written by an Indonesian graduate student in public administration who was a professional urban planner. In an ESL class in the U.S., each student wrote a definition of a technical term in his field (text excerpts, both original and revised versions, have been edited for spelling and punctuation).

Professional vocabulary in D includes ligand, transligand, transeffect, be replaced by. General vocabulary includes in the center, the same, very fast, very slowly, and at most time (revised to most of the time). Of particular interest is the bridging vocabulary, the area in which the student had the greatest difficulty and made the most revisions: different → different from, in other word → in other words, call → say (they) have, in general, and respectly (→ respectively).

In Text E, professional vocabulary includes housing, city planning, public housing, urban development, among other items. The general vocabulary items include building for (people) to live in, important word, match, comfortable, and plan. This text was not revised (possible revisions are given in parentheses), but again the area of greatest difficulty is bridging vocabulary. Instances include: is very close to, concern (are concerned) with, the more clear (the clearer), have an important corelationship (...relationship to), for example, aim directly at, on (the) other hand. The intended expression for "to colate" may have been "to correlate with." What is important to note is that first, the writer of Text E has difficulty in expressing professional ideas and has not mastered the choice between professional and general phrasing. Second, bridging vocabulary is a major problem area, one which can be isolated and worked on by the student and instructor.

The two non-native-speaker samples illustrate some control of professional vocabulary; mixed mastery of general vocabulary; and progress toward, but not yet full competence in, use of bridging vocabulary to interconnect or "bridge" professional and general vocabulary in professional discourse.

ESL materials for the language training of international non-native-speaker professionals can and should address bridging vocabulary. Teachers may assume that students already control this vocabulary, but as illustrated, that is not necessarily the case. Precisely because bridging vocabulary often involves modifiers, more complex transitions, phrases with prepositions, it causes prob-

Text D

Some compounds have a structure of...one metal in the center and four ligands on the four right angles. The four ligands may be same but at most time they are different each other. Every ligand can leave this compound. In other word, every ligand can be replaced by other ligands....Some made the transligand leave the compound very fast, and some ones just make the transligand leave very slowly. We call them to have strong transeffect or weak one, respectly.

Revision: ....The four ligands may be the same kind but in general they are different from each other. You can use other chemicals to replace any one of these four ligands....Some cause the transligand to be replaced a little easier; we say they have strong transeffect.... (Chinese chemistry student)

Text E

The Housing is an important word in the Architecture or City Planning. Its meaning is very close to word "House." In the common term, the "House" means the building for human being(s) to live in. The larger number of people who concern with the housing the more clear what Public Housing mean(s)....They have an important co-relationship each other. For example the Public Housing not only should match with the urban development plan of the city to develop in an equilibrium condition, but also aim directly at the distinctive features of the areas to colate (?) the comfortable living environment. On other hand, the city planning should have a proper plan ...for cultural and social activities. (Indonesian student in public administration) lems in language learning and use, and may be particularly difficult for a professional eager to learn more English on his/her own to identify and work on systematically. Yet few materials address this need; some recent ESL materials are moving in that direction, but often these are not available overseas. Thus there is an ongoing gap in the professional's access to vocabulary he/she needs for effective expression of ideas.

There is a further issue in teaching/learning bridging vocabulary. When students make "errors" in use of such terms, teachers sometimes just "edit," e.g., correct the preposition or other problem, or have the student do so, without drawing attention to the full bridging phrase and/or the relationship it establishes in the discourse.

Overt focus on bridging vocabulary in the classroom is feasible--and essential. Pre-professionals and professionals need bridging vocabulary to express their professional ideas in English. The preceding analysis has suggested some of the complexity, subsets, and functions of bridging vocabulary. Bridging vocabulary is accessible. It thus can be isolated within, but should always be discussed as an integral part of, unified discourse in English.

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AN EMPIRICAL REPORT ON AN ENGLISH FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES LEARNING SITUATION

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EMPIRICAL REPORT ON AN ESP LEARNING SITUATION

Learning a foreign language for special purposes usually presupposes a working basis in the foreign language. Teaching a foreign language for special purposes can then perhaps be divided into two general categories. The course or program can be designed within the socio-political needs of a school system where the learning goals relate to people who will enter into a special or specialized area of work. The learning program can also take place at a private institute or language school or as in-house training for people already involved in day-to-day handling of the first language specific forms and the corresponding referents. Within this second framework the *Erfahrungsaustauschring Fremdsprachen in der Wirtschaft*(ERFA), a group of foreign language teachers in industry and commerce in West Germany, saw, in a book it had published in 1981, that individual instruction was to be one of its perspectives for the future. By individual instruction it meant:
a) the development of teaching materials for specialized language skills(translation, reading of technical texts, ability to take part in discussions at congresses, etc.);
b) the development of methods and procedures that take individual needs and wishes into account."(Freudenstein 17-18)

As a teacher of English as a foreign language I was confronted with a specific learning situation. The managing director of a coal mine in West Germany felt the need for practice in performing a specific communicative task. In his role as representative of the company he often had to communicate with visitors, who could be either fellow practioners from foreign companies or countries or foreign lay people, usually VIPs. The role of English as a means of communication in the field of mining is supported by international technical dictionaries compiled in line with UNESCO and Common Market projects. The compiler of the latter project notes in the introduction that the main list has English since it is "commonly used by scholars and technicians the world over in their meetings and reports".(Schwicker 2)

This manager graduated from one of the two old and highly respected German mining schools, 'die Bergakademie' in Clausthal-Zellerfeld in West Germany. The other school is the 'Bergakademie' in Freiberg in East Germany. With his excellent training and long years of experience he felt confident in communicating with fellow specialists, e.g. when he was on a 'fact-finding' tour of mining operations in the U.S. He simply embedded the specialist vocabulary in his regular conversational English. Since he and the fellow practicioners share a pool of common referents and since nominalizations and other specific structures in technical langauge sum up the concepts to be communicated, this manager had nothing but praise for the intermediate English course he was taking to 'keep in shape'. In the course he showed in most situations a self-confidence in articulating questions and a deliberateness in expressing himself. Yet he felt the need for something else and so our weekly sessions began.

At our first meeting he brought along the printed material he himself used to keep up on things and on his English. A sign then, that he, as a person used to being prepared, had a feel for the problem and an interest in the learning situation. The material consisted of two journals and a brochure. An issue each of Coal International(British based, April 1986) and International Mining(British based but with U.S. offices, November 1986) were available. These publications, as the latter one clearly notes, are distributed "free of charge to mining industry readers who qualify under the terms of our controlled circulation scheme. Such qualified persons are: Executive, Management, ...Personnel,...".(IM 7) One of the sociolinguistic determinants of the text types found in these journals becomes clear. He also had a brochure, called Kohle/Coal, from a Ruhr Industrial Area coal mining equipment supplier. This brochure was initially attractive for both learner and teacher, with its glossy pages and full color pictures with English and German descriptions and captions.

Usually we as teachers of foreign languages for special purposes or of technical communication for native speakers think of training specialists, most often future specialists, to write reports for other specialists, or to engage in conversation for specific purposes, e.g. selling, reporting, advising, instructing, etc. or to work with technical texts in the target language. We are thus probably familiar with the appropriate didactic techniques and the linguistic theoretical foundations for achieving these learning goals. However, this particular manager in a specific function in a specific company had, if I may repeat the word, specific needs which went beyond(horizontally or vertically may be a good question) 'simple' expertise and the 'simple' or 'easy' communication with fellow specialists in certain professional communication situations.

The conversation in the target language at the beginning of the program helped to define the manager's needs. He needed: to describe the overall mining system in the area and the structure of his operations to someone, to explain the working operations of the mine and of specific machines (i.e. processes) to someone, and to have more practice in understanding and decoding general and specific texts on mining. He had though no idea of hsi specific language learning needs. He assumed, and his persona probably needed to assume, that it was only a matter of talking a bit, and in the course of time hsi expertise, whose expression(with respect to me) in the target language relied heavily on translations found in the brochure, would simply be passed on to the listener. Here was the crux of the problem. The speech acts he was called upon to perform, with their sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic components, became the real necessity. Thus, non-jarring, non-alienating characteristics of the target language would come to take precedence in our learning sessions. And session is perhaps the appropriate word here, keeping, of course, one's critical distance to the U.S. psychiatric scene. This manager had to become, and see the need for becoming, 'inarticulate' in the target langauge for special purposes so as to build up the appropriate linguistic and paralinguistic competence for his role. Sensitivity on the part of the teacher/guide was necessary in this breaking down of one L2 persona and the building up of another. Thus, different sets of cognitively formulated goals existed at the beginning of the learning program. The teacher then assumed the role of listener, i.e. the typical lay visitor the manager would be describing and explaining things to. My main purpose in doing this was so that the language learning relevant aspects of this situation could be specifically identified.

We went deep into the mine. In the brochure Kohle/Coal we found a page with pictures of a conveyor system.(Westfalia 21) The manager, as when talking to fellow experts, simply embedded the technical words found in the captions(these were translations from the German words found on the left-hand side of the page) in basic English. The typical invariant forms for descriptions: this is/it has got/ it consists of; and the typical predicates for explaining the operation of something: it comes/ it goes/ this brings x to y/ this takes x to y, etc. appeared. AFter about 15 to 20 minutes of such 'talk' certain things became clear. Some of the technical owrds used for parts and/or functions seemed to annoy. It thus seemed appropriate to concentrate on components of a machine or operation. Still there was annoyance, i.e. the teacher saw the need for himself to check on the technical terms used with respect to mining, including (or especially) British/U.S. variants, and to follow up on the published translations that were seen in the captions and in glancing through the accompanying texts in the brochure. The learner was, however, rewarded for his fine presentation with homework, viz. to write out a description of the operations depicted in another but similar picture to the one first used in the brochure. Of course, it was to be a description for a visitor to the mine. The learner/teacher relationship was characterized here by praise through recognition, before the breakdown to come.

The teacher's homework for the second session consisted of finding the English technical terms for the German ones. Two books, along with bilingual general dicitonaries, of course, were at the teacher's disposal: Fachwörterbuch

Bergbau, a German-English dictionary of mining terms(i.e. Teil II), and the Language of Mining and Metallurgy, a type of textbook published by Regents Publishing Company, New York, in the series 'English(i.e. American English) for Careers. The teacher also looked through the descriptions found in the glossy, bilingual brochure from the equipment company. Finally, it became clear how unclear matters really were. Something jarred the educated native speaker's linguistic and communicative sensitivities. Was it merely those alienating aspects of a technical language for such an educated native speaker? In what way did or could this speaker's sensitivity for word groups and structures in his native language and their communicative appropriateness conflicht with the manager's technical expertise?

The learner's homework task proved, however, to be too early in the learning process. Not only because of the linguistic complexity involved, but because of another learning factor. This manager had a pressing, difficult persoanl decision to make. Should be accept the offer to take over the running of another, larger Ruhr Area mining company? In fact, this was perhaps part of the motivation for wanting more practice in using English for special purposes in the first place, although this was not mentioned at all in the preliminary organizational conversations preceding the first session. Therefore, he wrote only a description of the layout of a mine, pictures of which were to be found in the beginning of the glossy brochure. The English words for the description of mine forms(static situations) were familiar to him. Interestingly, British and American terms(pit::mine, open-cast::open-pit, for example) kept uncontrollably bobbing up and down throughout the description. It also was clear that his need to defend his manager's control and articulateness in the mother-tongue enabled him to adequately describe the mining forms and even to compare the forms used in West Germany with those predominating in other countries, e.g. the United States. This information was in the brochure (Westfalia 2-5) and our manager had probably had to do this before in reality. In this way he also signalled to me as teacher that this was the communicative act he would have to handle in future and that this was what he wanted to practice. His description was, as to be expected, embedded in the limited predicative and predictive forms noted above.

Inconsistencies, however, began to strike and confuse the English language specialist. In the brochure Kohle/Coal the German term ,gewinnen' was used consistently. In the English version 'win' was used much more often than 'extract', and, of course, as befitting a technical text, in the nominalized form 'winning', e.g. 'the winning of very thick seams'.(Westfalia 4) It also seemed that 'win' was preferred as a translation on one page, 'extract' on another page. Was it only a matter of the writer/translator following the grammar school rule of not repeating the same word(a problem by the way which can be a real one for German trained specialists trying to communciate in English, say, in a research report) or was it a matter of two or more translators? Misgivings were increasing. In a line that follows the one with "The winning of very thick seams" we find "...special, technically mature installations" for ,,speziell..technisch ausgereifte Ausrüstungen". My purpose here is not to fault any specific translator's work. I would like to take up the role of translations in learning for special purposes later on in the paper. It became, however, clear that teacher and learner had some way to go before the learning goals would be reached.

The English language specialist was confused. In the first meeting the teacher offered 'extract' as a word having general coinage, a better substitute, when talking to a lay visitor, for the manager's universal 'win'. Until he saw the word 'extract' used in the brochure, the manager was sceptical. After it appeared, the teacher was sceptical. A native English speaker has a feel for 'win' as a technical term in such a context, for my sensitivities confined to technical language. Technical terms, clearly and consistently defined and recognized when embedded in appropriate native-speaker invariant and/or substitute phrases (word groups and/or collocations, became the teacher's goal for the second session. On the teacher's list were basic words like: mine, surface mining, open-pit, strip mining, face, seam/vein, conveyor; verbs like: to extract coal, to open up, to work a mine, to convey; and adjectives/ adverbials like: inclined, at a depth of, etc. The importance of nouns and nominalizations, e.g. extracting coal, extraction/winning of coal, working a mine, etc. were to be made clear in a later exercise. Using the German/English technical dictionary noted above and the brochure, the teacher devised a cloze type exercise for homework. Excerpts from the 'disturbing' brochure were simplified so that nominal forms and the typical embedding structures would be highlighted. The learner's task was to fill in full words, mainly nominal forms that had been left out, or letters in incomplete words. The purpose of the task was to reinforce recognition of words as slot fillers and to sensitize the learner indirectly for British/U.S. differences. Something old and comforting for the learner should lead to something new for the learner/teacher relationship. Teacher's misgivings were becoming stronger. Learner again felt confident, although the teacher's indication of 'discrepancies'/'inconsistencies' was sowing a seed of doubt that would grow stronger in the next session.

After the correct fill-ins were discussed and the learner made aware of the importance of nominal forms in his technical language and the role of invariant and substitute structures(cf., for example, Koehler on technical language in German as a foreign language), he was presented with a new task. From the U.S.-American book on the language of mining, the captions for two pictures showing the forms of surface mining operations, i.e. open-pit and strip mining, were covered.(Hall 34-35) This meant he had to do something similar to his previous description. This time he had to use the vocabulary and the forms highlighted and reinforced in the lesson before. The manager felt more than confident. He gave the impression that he could tell the layman, the teacher, everything. He even had more English verbs up his sleeve than had come to light in the previous meetings.

"The ore deposit is developed," he said. Teacher as native speaker and in the role he decided to play in these sessions, guide/'re-authenticator'(Beneke in Freudenstein 173)/listener was not happy with this. In the aforementioned dictionary put together by Germans certainly familiar with the material, being as they are from the TU Aachen and a West German coal mining company, various words are simply listed, in alphabetical order, for the manager's German word 'aufschliessen'.

The teacher suggested another word in the list, 'open up', as coming closer to describing clearly the activity involved with respect to a deposit. This was where the self-confident manager got hsi first real feeling of annoyance, which he transmitted to the teacher with eye movements and tone of voice. The teacher made a point of talking about the words listed, noting connotations, usual 'phrases'(as in Phraseologie, found in Wolfgang Fleischer's book) the words are bound in, i.e. word groups/collocations, etc. The main thing was: teacher and learner saw the need for more work and for being specific and for more clearly identifying language learning needs.

The teacher was not really completely happy with his 'open up an ore deposit'. We all know the word groups: 'to develop a site' or 'a site is developed', and 'to open up an area', which can prbably slide off into a collocation, or 'to mine a deposit'. The terms 'word group' and 'collocation' relate here to a distinction used by Newmark in his book Approaches to Translation. The need for such a codification of expressions and structures in a language has appeared often; the terms used for this codifying, however, vary, depending on the linguistic tradition(s) relied upon, to mention one factor. As a more recent example of this codification for pedagogical purposes, you have The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English.

Before I mention how we narrowly defined the language learning needs/goals, I would like to touch on the role of translations and printed matter in learning a foreing language for specific purposes. The brochure we had been using began to show more 'annoying' language forms. The term 'armored/armoured conveyor' seemed, to the native speaker, to be an appropriate expression for 'Panzerförderer'. In the technical dictionary used we find 'armoured flexible conveyor' and 'panzer conveyor'; 'armoured conveyor' was found under 'Panzer'. Yet, in trying to satisfy the manufacturer's important and recognized need to protect innovations/registered names, we find in the brochure 'Panzer^R Conveyor' or 'Panzer Conveyor^R' as a translation of the above.(K/C 21). But on another page we find 'Panzer Conveyor'(K/C 36), with no superscript after 'Panzer'. The critical stance here comes about mainly because the learning situation demands it. Printed information takes on a normative value of its own. Our learner assumed 'Panzer Conveyor', or, ignoring the printed image, 'panzer conveyor', was the generally acceptable and understood term for 'Panzerförderer'.

An aspect of translating that I think is often neglected is that once an organization has accepted a translation of its terms and activities, then all other translations that follow must consistently use the terms, and sometimes even the expressions, decided upon. The later translator's linguistic and pragmatic sensitivities have to be subordinated to another precept, assuming these sensitivities collide with the translated text. Examples from government publications and company materials abound, but I cannot go into details here. Consistency, especially in areas sensitive to the specific audience, is important. Who decides what, where and when, is what companies with computerized glossaries may be making an attempt to wrestle with. Our foreign language teaching for specific purposes is not independent of the work that still has to be done in the area of consistency and the role of norms.(Karl-

Heinz Brinkmann in Freudenstein 95-107)

As for general translation problems relating to technical texts (German/English) other ones became important for our learner's ultimate task and our learning goals. The various translations of 'Leistung' and 'leisten'(not only in technical language, I may add) and of 'fördern' and 'Förderung' came into play. We were both, as I said getting deeper into our material. With respect to nominalized forms, something else was found in the brochure: "the drivage of headings". (K/C 35) Native speaker sensibilities were again addressed. It could all, of course, be the language of mining. A confirmation of the teacher's misgivings was found in a variant form used in the English journals. In Coal International from April 1986 we find on p. 23: "driving a heading", "a heading driven by hand", and on p. 18: "face heading drivage". 'Drivage of something' gives this native speaker all sorts of diffuse images. Translation is important. As mentioned before, who has the final say? For teacher and learner here the final say in the matter would be had by the manager's audience and its sociolinguistic determinants.

The learning goals could now be more specifically set. The manager, being used to technical texts and their linguistic/communicative format, needed some more practice in reading for gist. This meant more practice in keeping abreast of new developments in his field. This would include political and environmental topics as they relate to mining. But mainly he needed to be made aware of this type of language and how it, especially as found in the Abstract and/or Introduction part of a journal article, could be adapted for his specific needs. He needed to see

the importance of embedding terms for parts and processes in a lexis and syntax with more general appeal, or visiting audience specific situational appeal, than any inconsistent mishmash of terms and expressions that, for experts exchanging information in certain narrowly defined professional situations, mean real communication. In his new role the manager would have to describe the layout or structure of a mining operation and of machines and describe mining operations as processes, including explaining the operation of a particular machine used in his mine. Most often this would be a brand-new, state-of-the-art innovation(to emphasize its newness and economic importance). The listeners would be foreign visitors, most probably important lay people.
In the previous attempt to describe the operation of a machine as a process pictured in the brochure, the learner saw the importance of the learning goals defined above.
The 'equipment', a word known to the learner but emphasized by the teacher for its generally useful function in English, was used for a purpose, but how could this be described to the audience the teacher represented. Original texts in English for mining purposes were needed. Among other things, they were needed to show the learner the structures that predominate in specific text types. The purpose of an activity is whtat the Introduction or Abstract of research papers as published in journals intends to present. The Abstract part of a report in the Canadian Institute of Mining Bulletin was used.(Preston 43) Many of the words we had up to this point appeared. The probability of their appearing was, incidentally, high, because of the way our teacher/learner interaction was proceeding, i.e. the process. In such a summary, and for

the purpose of describing a process(here: the reporting activity), such forms as: describe, be outlined, be characterized by, show, present, illustrate and, of course, use are used in various structures. Gerunds and participles, especially participial constructions in their summarizing function, are used.

I would like to digress again for a moment and look at the indefinite summarizing character of participial constructions. As an example, we have this form from such an Abstract: "In this study,...to consider the effect of internal waste caused by selective mining, on pit design, using geostatistical methods to predict the tonnage..." Patent texts seem to be, by the way, full of such structures. They also have words and syntax that are less than unambiguous, belonging perhaps to the patent lawyer's ideolect or sociolect. There may, too, be legal reasons for not wanting to be all too explicit in such texts. Yet the indefiniteness of summarizing participial constructions(cf. Quirk 330--11.36) may be only a reflection of the common referent system the specialists share so that communication takes place as in a tightyl knitted ethnic community, a sort of communicative osmosis. Our manager in his prepresentative role would simply overburden(pardoning the pun a teacher of English for mining purposes can relate to) visitors with such an assumption.

The Abstract used consisted of two orthographically defined sentences. The learner was to underline phrases that answer questions, such as:

> This paper describes the use of electronics for what activities?
>
> Which techniques are outlined?
>
> What characterization is also included in the abstract?

This done, and certainly the above is enough of this, the phrases were broken up by having the learner write down

...the use of $\underline{\quad}_{x}^{\text{ing}}$ for $\underline{\quad}_{y}^{\text{ing}}$...

techniques in $\underline{\quad}_{z}^{\text{ing}}$

The next step was to underline with a second line the ___ing forms that do not complete the phrases above. Thus, those that funciton as participles were separated from gerunds and shown to stand for clauses in their post-modifying, limiting, defining terms and/or summarizing function. Gerunds tend in their nominalizing capacity to make a verb having general communicative coinage a technical term tending to contextual and cotextual unambiguity.

According to some East German work on German technical texts, the text type, i.e. communicating something specific to a specific audience, determines the embedding structures (lexis and syntactical elements) employed. (Braunöhler 9-33) Invariant verbal structures appear, as understood in *Phraseologie* and comparable to the understanding of word groups and collocations noted above. Word groups admit of substitute verbs(*Ersatzverben*, cf. Koehler), depeding on the text type. I do not want to get into the German, both East and West, distinction between *Texttyp* and *Textsorte* and *Textart* here. A description of something static, an object, a structure, requires other verbs to express facultative and dependency relationships than perhaps a description of a dynamic process or instrucitons for operating something. Also, the forms used may be different. In a report on an operation or research carried out, an activity done, past passive predominates.

Back then to the mine. The practice, the text work, with Abstract and Introduction sections of research papers showed us the way further. As may have been noted, writing skills in technical English were not deemed necessary by this manager, belonging, to a great extent, as they do, to research papers; at least, the more sophisticated writing skills. From written texts we needed to go to oral communication, keeping, however, the concepts of texts and audience in mind. In order to give the learner a model for communicating to foreign visitors, texts were looked at which speak to foreigners interested in the topic. We needed 'real' English. The ads for technical products in the jornals mentioned are often well-written. The teacher was attracted by a breezy ad, from a British company, in which there was a fine use of metaphorical language and word plays. In the text we find: "...longwall technology is more than a support"; "A partnership in depth".(IM50-5 However, this text almost brought us to the other extreme, i.e. popular technical texts. These latter texts are characterized by a lack of word groups and collocations appropriate to a particular(technical) text type. One has the feeling there is no regular recurrence of lexical/ syntactic elements and the unequivocalness of nominalizations and defining constructions is replaced by verbs and indefinite adjectives and substantives(polysemous words) which allow of word plays. "A partnership in depth" may help sell a reader on the virtues of a particular company, but...

'But' is the correct word here. Our manager's job was almost that: to 'sell' his company to visitors. The dilemma was

that lexical and lexical/syntactic structures with a more general appeal have to do the job of the manager's more familiar communication style when dealing with fellow experts in the appropriate professional setting-- at meetings, on a 'fact-finding' tour of another mine, etc.
Both teacher and learner were now in a position to come to their goals. It was decided that texts found in the English language journals in which operations and processes (Vorgänge and Vorgangspassiv in German) are described could serve as appropriate models or basic material for further work. A description of an operation was found in an issue of International Mining, British English being used in the whole article. The excerpt on the operation concerned 'Conveyor Haulage'. From this excerpt we only looked at the part where the operation of a new crusher is described. "The new crusher feeds a 630m(2,070ft) conveyor system that runs along...It is driven by a 55kW motor." (IM 25) In our very first meeting we had a conveyor system. Here we have the right balance of verbs for activities/ operations and their forms in English, viz. Simple Present, Active and Passive. It is not a report on, but a description of, a process. A relative clause fulfills its audience specific communicating function. A corresponding German expression for power, '...mit einer Leistung von...', is not expressed by a jarring '...with a performance of...', but by a non-jarring and, therefore, hummingly communicative "55kW motor". The machine or part of the product talked about becomes the center of attention for the audience. This style was the one our manager/learner was to emulate in describing the operation of specific machines to me, representing, as I did, his audience of interested lay,

perhaps important representatives of foreign institutions or governing bodies, and/or expert visitors. Throughout the issue the expression for purpose,

"is used for $\underset{x}{\text{doing}}$ something",

appears often. Verbs in the Simple Present like 'describe', 'necessitate' and 'is employed' appear as passable variants for the limited predicative forms the manager used at the beginning of the lessons to embed his expertise. But one must be careful here. Not all the texts explain the workings of a machine or a specific mining operation, nor do all the parts of a text fulfill the same communicative function. (The problematical aspects of text analysis and communicative function are discussed, to mention one comment, by Schmidt in Dressler 47-60.)

What type of texts are they? Can or should invariant structures be analyzed and codified? Can or should one talk of discourse markers that our learner can transfer to his performance in the mine? In one article, for example, the teacher as native speaker had his inclinations supported by finding in the same issue the word that was the initiator of much in this learning process. In a report on setting up new mining operations in an area of Canada, we find the bold-face heading for a part of the article: Mine development. And in this part we read: "The development of the main haulage network..." The learner was able to see how the native speaker/guide was more pleased with this use of development than with 'develop an ore deposit', which, God knows, may still be 'technically' correct. Yet the style of the report as a whole would not fulfill the very specific requirements our learning process needed to impose. In general, it was all good technical writing for a specific audience by use of a specific medium(journal), from which our manager would have little difficulty extracting information.

We now went back to the glossy pictures in the brochure. Our manager had the feeling of a new type of self-confidence, a new type of fluency. In response to the teacher/lay visitor's question, "What's that?", we had a performance of this form:

> This is an armored conveyor system. It is combined with a drum shearer that cuts into the seam at the rate of x revolutions per minute. The coal is then brought by the conveyor to...

The vocabulary was no longer a mishmash of 'translations' and British and U.S. technical terms, but words that have conceptual/communicative value for an audience in this sociolinguistic situation, i.e. manager/important lay visitor at the mining site. The embedding structures were also felt by the teacher to be 'audience friendly'. The learner did not have to depend on technical language structures. 'Tunnel' and 'tunnel(l)ing', found for teacher's and learner's confirmation in an ad from a British machine making company in Coal Interantional, April 1986(CI 10), could be used for 'driving a heading' or the still horrible 'drivage of a heading'. 'Extract' was certainly confirmed by the journals as having a wider validity than the mainly technically specific 'win'. The more unambigous/technically specifying gerund was replaced in such a description to an audience(particularly an English-speaking one) by the verbal form. 'Winning of coal is accomplished by...' became 'Coal is extracted by...'. Relative clauses and adverbial clauses replaced participial constructions.

In sum, then, very specific purposes demanded that the learning process for ESP here even went so far as to use linguistic and didactic theories and practices in another direction than that usually described. Popular scientific and technical texts, written with a flair, are meant for lay people; the lack of certain linguistic invariants and nominalizations make them difficult for technical people who read them as part of a foreign language program for special purposes. Other texts are too technically linguistically specific for the role of a manager communicating to foreign visitors as described above. His persona and perhaps the economic fortunes of the operations he represents would depend on non-jarring, non-alienating communication in the specific situation. These visitors are probably in this communicative situation for reasons other than simply shop-talk. A lot of honing(punning seems unavoidable when dealing with mining and metallurgy terms; historically conditioned, I am sure) had to be done in such an ESP learning situation to have our manager communicate in a way appropriate to his role and the situation and his audience. Other types of communication the man would need in future in the foreign language surfaced. Negotiating might become one of these functions.

Ideally, the proud teacher could have been present at a 'performance' by the learner on the mining site. Ideally, the learning goals above could have been reinforced and new ones set. Yet all this did not happen. The lessons were broken off. The manager accepted the new position and had enough to do learning his new social role and getting adjusted within his native language and cultural constraints. With respect to adults, it might not be amiss, in fact, to place more emphasis on codifying empirical observations on both the psychological needs addressed in various forms of foreign language training(comparable, say, to management seminars, in general) and on the role social and other commitments play in foreign language learning.

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ACTFL PROFICIENCY IMPLEMENTATION IN THE STATE OF FLORIDA

by

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ACTFL PROFICIENCY IMPLEMENTATION IN THE STATE OF FLORIDA

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This report summarizes the results of a preliminary investigation of the implementation of the ACTFL proficiency guidelines in the State of Florida. The study looks at the impact of the guidelines on teaching methodology, curriculum design and testing procedures. The need for the study is underlined by a call for an active research effort into the effect of the guidelines on the foreign language classroom in "A progress report on the ACTFL proficiency guidelines 1982-86" (Hiple, 1987).

The nature of the ACTFL proficiency guidelines and their usage has been a subject of increasing controversy in our profession. The dialog continues between advocates and critics in forums such as the Modern Language Journal, Foreign Language Annals, and at the ACTFL and TESOL conferences. Advocates of the proficiency movement such as Bragger, Byrnes, Galloway, Medley, Omaggio and Liskin-Gasparro believe that by stressing function, content, and accuracy at levels of instruction, Americans will increase the ability to communicate in real-life contexts. The stated goals of the proficiency movement are to understand other cultures and to become interactionally competent in foreign language settings. Kramsch questions (1987) whether proficiency is synonomous with interactional competence, because of the emphasis on behavioral functions, lexical and grammatical forms fo the language.

Controversy even exists regarding the definition of proficiency. Schulz (1987) points out that at a 1981 conference on Language Proficiency Assessment, participants could not arrive at a conclusive common definition of proficiency. Burt, Dulay and Hernandez-Chavez identify 64 separate and measurable components of proficiency, while Oller and Perkins define proficiency as a single factor of global language proficiency.

Bachman and Savignon (1987) present another critique of the ACTFL Oral Interview, arguing that many foreign language professionals have unrealistic expectations for the guidelines, that too many believe the guidelines will provide the solution to all classroom problems. They state further that many also feel that the guidelines will be the basis for criterion referenced testing, improved professional standards, and provide a "new blueprint for foreign language curriculum design and teaching methods."

On the positive side, Bachman and Savignon value the guidelines for:

1) the establishment of a standard for defining and measuring language proficiency independent of specific languages and contexts

2) the provision of scores that are comparable across different languages and contexts

3. the setting of new standards of accountability in language teaching that strengthen the profession through ensuring students' ability to use the language after passing courses with

high grades.

Byrnes (1987) describes the major grounds for criticism of the guidelines, including the purported elitism of the construct of proficiency and the oral interview. She counters by declaring that assessment of oral language proficiency is by definition elitist due to the emphasis on grammatical accuracy and the nature of what constitutes and educated native speaker.

Another criticism cited by Byrnes is the oral interview's alleged obsession with grammar, that the divisions between levels of proficiency are actually determined by mastery of specific discrete points of grammar. Byrnes responds by asserting that grammar is only part of one of three areas that the test assesses: language function, context and accuracy.

Background Information on the ACTFL Proficiency Movement

The oral proficiency movement is less than a decade old, yet its impact upon the foreign language profession has been profound. The US government focused attention on the need to develop the oral language proficiency of military and diplomatic personnel after World War II. The Foreign Service Interview was developed in response to the recognition of the need to develop communicative and linguistic competence. Hiple (1987) presents an insightful description of the history of the oral proficiency movement and ACTFL's involvement in it. The impetus for the oral proficiency movement in national education began in 1977 when the Modern Language Association and the American Council of Learned Societies received a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation and the National Endowment for Humanities to create five task forces whose goal was to propose a unifying mission to the profession. Their recommendations were published in Language Study for the 1980s: Reports of the MLA-ACLS Language Task Forces. The publication of this report coincided with the appointment of the President's Commission of Foreign Language and International Studies which first met in October, 1978. The report of the President's Commission was influenced by the recommendations of the task forces. ACTFL incorporated the suggestions of both reports in a proposal to develop proficiency guidelines entitled A Design for Measuring and Communicating Foreign Language Proficiency. ACTFL's proposal was funded by the US Department of Education in 1981 to develop generic proficiency goals for reading, writing, speaking, listening and culture and language-specific sets of proficiency goals in Spanish, French and German that were based on the generic goals. Oral proficiency assessment became the priority, partly due to the government's emphasis on communicative ability and partly due to the tradition of the oral interview.

ACTFL pursued the development of language proficiency projects and received additional funding from the US Department of Education to offer academic oral proficiency tester training with ETS to assess the proficiency of both students and teachers.

Subsequently ETS won a grant form the government called the Common Yardstick Project whose purpose was to research the possibility of establishing national standards for oral proficiency. ETS endorsed the Foreign Service Interview oral proficiency scale but made two changes for academic use:

1) the combination of the upper levels of the government scale into one broad scale

2) the subdivision of the lower ranges of the scale where most academic language learners cluster

The 1982 ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines reflected an emphasis on oral proficiency. The testing objectives provided curricular direction to foreign language education at all levels, establishing a progressive sequence of realistic expectations. In the State of Florida, the objectives are tied to the Curriculum Frameworks which outline the language skills required by students to function in a variety of contexts. The guidelines help to establish language proficiency achievement goals for the end of each year of study at all levels with special attention to speaking proficiency.

Implementation of ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines in Florida

The ACTFL guidelines have had an impact in some areas of the foreign language curriculum, teaching methodology and testing at all levels in Florida. In curriculum, the State of Florida Curriculum Frameworks for K - 12 grades reflects a proficiency orientation in its communicative and functional goals. The Frameworks incorporate applied language studies in their mention of foreign language for specific purposes courses, a rare occurence in state curriculum planning at the secondary level (Grosse, 1988).

Additionally, the State of Florida conducts statewide foreign language competitions with a large oral component each spring for junior and senior high students of foreign languages.

The competitions feature judging of impromptu speaking (two minutes on a topic chosen at the competition), declamation or recitation, myth telling, talent, skits, plays, costumes, projects, posters and food. Florida's counties have begun to follow the state's lead through the implementation of county-wide language competitions. Dade County Public Schools (fourth largest school district in the US) and Broward County Public Schools (eighth largest school district) held foreign language competitions this year. In some ways the organization of the competitions differ. For example, in Dade County the impromptu speaking topics focus on production of discrete grammatical points, while the Broward County the topics reflect natural communication more. Pinellas County School Board holds a Culture Day in the spring with declamations, impromptu speaking and other activities. Escambia County Public Schools hold a foreign language competition once a year as well. The supervisor of foreign languages for Broward County Public Schools Vilma Diaz comments "What we're striving for is to be able to communicate in the language. You need to have the children compete" (1988). Winners of the county contests attend the statewide competition in the spring.

Like other states, Florida requires a score of 220 on the Test of Spoken English for add-on teacher certification in ESOL, reflecting its recognition of the value of teachers' oral language proficiency. However, no such requirement exists for certification of foreign language teachers. The issue of a required level of oral proficiency for teacher certification in foreign languages is a hotly discussed topic at statewide gatherings of foreign language professionals. The educators wrestle with the critical need for foreign language teachers and the need to ensure a certain level of proficiency in new teachers. In reality, the shortage of teachers in Florida is acute: state universities of Florida only produce 6% of the foreign language teachers hired in the state each year. This is lower even than the amount of math and science teachers trained by the state university system each year to meet the critical shortage of teachers in these areas.

A telephone survey of fifteen second language program leaders was conducted to discover the extent to which foreign languages around the state have incorporated the ACTFL proficiency guidelines. The following program leaders were contacted:

David Tipmore, Director, Continuing Education Foreign Language Program, University of Miami

Carol Lazzeri, Director, Intensive Language Program, University of Miami

Charlotte Al-Jamal, Director, English Language Institute, Florida International University

Reinaldo Sanchez, Chair, Modern Languages, Florida International University

Frank Ploener, Director, Intensive English Program, Barry University

Osvaldo Lopez, Chair, Foreign Languages, Miami-Dade Community College Wolfson Campus

Crystal Marin, Chair, Foreign Languages, Miami-Dade Community College South Campus

Seymour Pollack, Chair, Foreign Languages, Miami-Dade Community College Interamerican Campus

Wally Lyshkov, Supervisor Foreign Languages, Dade County Public Schools

Vilma Diaz, Supervisor Foreign Languages, Broward County Public Schools

Ana Roca, Coordinator Foreign Languages, Florida International University

Christa Kirby, Foreign Language Supervisor, Pinellas County School Board

Kay Broughton, ESOL Coordinator, Escambia County School District

Ronald Bryant, Foreign Language Supervisor, Orange County School Board.

Ernest Frechette, School of Education, Florida State University

The survey consisted of the following questions:

1. Are your familiar with the ACTFL proficiency guidelines?
2. What is your opinion of them?
3. How useful are the guidelines in your second language program?
4. In what ways does your program implement the guidelines?
5. Does your program conduct oral language tests?
6. What is your opinion of oral tests? How well do they measure language proficiency?
7. Have you or your teachers participated in the ACTFL/ETS

oral proficiency tester training program? When? How many teachers participated?

8. What impact did the training have on your second language program?

Analysis of responses:

Slightly over half of the program leaders were familiar with the ACTFL proficiency guidelines. These respondents felt that the guidelines were particularly useful as targets, or goals for their programs. The foreign language supervisor of Dade County Public Schools remarked that the county's curriculum in foreign languages had a proficiency orientation. Others responded that the guidelines were not used in the actual scoring of oral placement or classroom tests, but that their primary value was in the setting of program goals.

Every program leader responded that oral tests were administered in the second language program to varying degrees. Many noted that the administration of such tests is important but complicated by the fact that they are so time-consuming. The Intensive English Programs tended to use oral tests such as the John test, the Ilyin Oral interview, and self-developed oral interviews as part of the placement procedure. Escambia County uses the Bilingual Syntax Measure and the Idea Proficiency Kit for ESOL program entry and exit requirements. Each public school system leaves the decision to include oral tests up to the individual teacher. Oral tests are used informally by those teachers who choose to administer them. However, In Pinellas County, the foreign language supervisor encourages the classroom use of oral tests through notifying the principals that teacher evaluations should include checking the teachers' grade books for grades from oral testing. Clearly, the types of oral tests range considerably from teacher to teacher, and no information exists on how frequently such tests are given to the K - 12 students, or how much weight is given to the tests.

At Miami-Dade Community College, the largest community college in the United States that was also rated the number one community college in quality of education, oral exams are an integral part of the foreign language curriculum. First and second year language courses require oral testing throughout the semester and as part of the final exam. At Florida International University and the University of Miami, the administration of oral tests is carried out informally, at the discretion of the classroom teacher.

Almost all of the respondents felt that oral testing provides a good measure of a student's ability to communicate in the second language. Many felt that the oral tests should be used in conjunction with other tests for placement and for classroom assessment.

Spanish, French and ESOL faculty members at Miami-Dade Community College were trained recently in administering the Language Proficiency Interview by ACTFL/ETS. In 1982 twelve K-adult teachers from around the state were trained as testers at Florida International University. Dade County Public Schools also trained 45 teachers through ACTFL's tester training program in Spanish.

In conclusion, the ACTFL guidelines have had some impact on the overall goals of the curriculum of foreign language programs in Florida. The State of Florida Curriculum Frameworks, the stated "proficiency orientation" of the foreign language curriculum and teaching methodology in the individual counties, all point to the embracing of the ACTFL guidelines. County foreign language supervisors cite a commitment to a proficiency-based curriculum and teaching approach. Yet change in teaching methodology and even texts is slow to come. The difficulties of administering and scoring oral tests and teacher resistance present further obstacles to teacher adaptation of a proficiency orientation.

The Advanced Placement examinations in Spanish and French have a taped section that require students to make a recording of their speech in response to a question.

The popularity of oral language competitions in the public schools throughout Florida is spreading from county to county. Oral language tests are used commonly for ESOL program entry and exit, and sporadically in the foreign language and ESOL classroom. The kind of tests, frequency of administration, and weight of test vary enormously.

The oral proficiency movement is only six years old, and has just begun to affect the second language curriculum, methods of teaching and testing. In Florida, approximately half of the sixteen program leaders contacted had not heard of the ACTFL proficiency guidelines. Some leaders in the state strongly resist the use of oral language tests as being impractical to administer and score. Yet it seems likely that the impact of the ACTFL guidelines on curriculum development, materials adaptation, teaching and testing methods will continue to develop as more teachers grow comfortable with oral testing techniques, as programs adopt new texts that reflect the proficiency orientation, more teachers receive training in giving and scoring the ACTFL oral interview, and more programs require levels of proficiency for entry and exit requirements,

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QUICK ON THE ICE: TEACHING THE LANGUAGE AND CULTURE OF AMERICAN BUSINESS TO CANADIAN ATHLETES

by

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Quick On The Ice:
Teaching the Language and Culture of American Business to Canadian Athletes

by Ronald C. Katz

When I was first approached over a year ago to set up an "educational program" for members of the New York Islanders hockey team, I began by working to define what objectives such a program might meet. The best the team's management, members, and a variety of other interested parties could do was to articulate a need and a general direction for such a program. That direction was set in part by the expressed desire of the athletes to enter meaningful business careers once they retired from the sport.

Careful surveying and interviews with individual team members identified a clear obstacle to securing such careers: the players, without exception, lacked post-secondary educations. In fact, it was only after a program was underway to satisfy that problem that an important related phenomena clearly surfaced. That phenomena can best be described and understood in terms of the cultural inopportunateness which stands in the path of the French Canadian athlete who is seeking to move swiftly into a meaningful post-retirement business career in the United States.

Even prior to identifying this phenomena, the importance of gearing our activities toward an already unique mental, linguistic, and cultural landscape, i.e. that of the professional hockey player, was evident. That athlete was armed with an incomplete secondary education and anything but a conventional world view.

Accordingly, within the following structure, a staff was assembled and a program designed to get these athletes positioned to begin progress toward college degrees as one of several vehicles to meaningful business careers.

1. A "coaching staff" was assembled consisting of an ESL and CLEP specialist, Beth Haidt of the City University of New York, a Professor of Edcation, Hal Sobel of Queens College, who is a noted expert in pedagogy relating to "the world as a classroom," Patricia Groom who specializes in teaching traditional underachievers (i.e. people who do not do well in orthodox academic settings) math, business math, computers, and related subjects, and several other specialists who researched and helped develop

the curriculum. To give the learning environment one of credibility and immediacy in terms of the participants' career goals, meetings were held in a corporate conference room provided by the executive recruiting firm of Franklin Allen Consultants, at its Garden City, New York headquarters.

2. The staff began its work by discovering, through surveys and interviews, each individual's academic, professional, cultural, and linguistic history. The results were evaluated in terms of the various assets and liabilities each individual possessed and which therefore influenced the path to a business career. The staff then worked with each individual to arrive at a statement of post-retirement goals. Needless to say, we were eager to compare those statements and each person's expectations and ambitions at the beginning of this experimental program, to what we expected to be more sober and realistic statements at the conclusion of the program.

3. A curriculum was then completed which would enhance and develop specific skills over a four month period. Those skills would in turn enhance each individual's ability to achieve the professional goals he described.

4. Within that curriculum, a framework for modifying goals and advancing specific skills which made sense given the individual's strengths and weaknesses, was developed. Likewise, it was decided that every effort would be made to uncover and develop stong personal qualities which differ in every individual, but which, if known to that individual, cultivated and polished, could be called upon and would be most effective in a situation where the individual had to market himself.

5. Mainly because of pressure to offer plenty of reinforcement, quick, and measurable results, we concentrated on developing and advancing skills of the sort which would translate to "life experience" credits at local colleges.

What we set out to do had little relation to traditional ESL problems. The problems that existed for American and Canadian athletes alike were cultural rather than linguistic. But the situation is best understood by looking closely at the milieu in which typically, the Canadian athlete from Quebec rises to prominence.

Prior to the mid 1960's, the Quebec system of primary and secondary education was a shambles. (1) Aside from being notorious for its discrimination against girls, a majority of all students left school by age fourteen. (2) There are currently approximately 6.5 million Canadians who speak French as a first language, and among these people, sports is a very central part of life. (3) To illustrate one might take a look at Canada as a whole which has one hundred and forty different sports associations. Those which are not based in Quebec almost always have chapters or affiliates there. For example, a sport as dull and insipid as horseshoes has chapters in ten provinces. And included in the roster of executives of the Canadian Horseshoe Association is an official French-English translator. The national hockey league is of course based in Montreal.

While sports are very interesting to Canadians, they lack the all out seriousness and commercialism which American football for example epitomizes. Sports events in Quebec, to this day, are more occasions for lively social interplay than instruments of commercialism. (4)

Historically in Quebec, personal and professional advancement has been linked to one's command of English. English is essentially the ticket one needs to operate at a high level. While some such as "athlete-scholar" Ken Dryden would disagree with this premise, it is otherwise widely accepted that even in the midst of nationalist expression of recent years, the English speakers of Quebec represent a kind of elite. (5) Hence a speical burden has fallen on the French Canadian hockey player. (6) According to a Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism report, hockey players who come from the essence of French Canadian life are models for the advancement of all French Canadians, and as a result, carry a special burden.

Needless to say, the idea of French Canadian hockey players ending their professional careers in the U.S. is not surprising. Many have joined teams here, have homes and are raising families in U.S. cities. Further, most Canadians live and were raised close to the U.S. boarder, and thinking a lot about life in the U.S. is simply a part of life in Canada. (7)

Ken Dryden has argued that his teammates felt "no inferiority complex or hold no second class status within their province or country." (8) Whether that is true or not, the fact is that they experience great deficiencies in ours.

This cultural, social and historical phenomena of the French Canadian athlete-star is compounded by several other factors. These factors relate chiefly to what might be described as the stardom complex. In a program such as that which I have described, we are dealing with individuals who are accustomed to being in the limelight, wealthy, and in full control of what is taking place around them. Hence when interviewed by newspaper reporters about this program in which they were participating, they expressed genuine commitment to its objective, but said little about the substance of the program or their ability to cope with difficult subject matter.

It is important to note at this juncture that something more than athletic prowess alone distinguishes the professional hockey player from the hundreds and thousands of others that tried to make it, and who seemed on the face of it to have similar technical abilities. From our standpoint, and this was articulated by Howard Kalmaer, a Long Island businessman who represents many of these athletes, and who has been responsible for many of them having extremely successful post-retirement careers, the qualities which distinguish those players who make it are intellectual ones. Despite their often substandard educations, intellectual qualities such as motivation, the ability to instantly assimilate data from a variety of sources, and so on, are often highly advanced, even if, more often than not, they are overshadowed by other personal qualities such as crude or monotone speech.

In developing those intellectual qualities we were not faced with anything quite as problematic as the classical aspiration of turning a beast into a scholar, but we were convinced that efficient progress would be made only if our pedagogy took into account intellectual paradigms which were already quite evolved in the players, typically as they related to their experience on the ice.

Being from the deep south, prior to this program, I had never seen a hockey game. But even those who know a great deal more about hockey than I do, have probably not had reason to ask, how does a hockey player think?

To answer that question, we went to a premise which underlies everything a hockey player does -- that premise is almost a theology that governs the mind and body on the ice, and it relates to speed. Speed is the physical manifestation of the quantum mechanics of a hockey player's cerebral activity. Put more simply by Ken Dreyden in his biography, "for nearly fifty years the story of hockey has been speed." (9)

Of course it is well known that when introducing new kinds of intellectual behaviors to an adult, speed is about the last element acquired in the learning process. For those used to speed as a modus operandi, it can be frustrating to try to conduct sustained learning of new materials.

Given our aim to avoid frustrating our athletes, we identified other subtle intellectual attributes which we could exploit as resources for more efficient learning. For example, we described one learning attribute as the "six on six" mind set which we initially discovered was hindering learning when an individual had to deal with and reach conclusions based on disparate elements such as, in simple terms, the dissociation of concepts like apples and oranges.

Another significant learning behavior we identified was identified as the "ice time fix." We found attention spans and motivation reached peaks and followed cycles similar to periods of time spent on the ice in actual competition. Once we understood what was happening we were able to adjust to dramatic lapses in focus and attention. Our challenge then became one of redescribing the attributes of the ice time learning curve and helping the players apply its qualities to more sustained and/or diverse activities.

One more example is what we identified as the "blue line" mind set. We were at first surprised but then began to understand the incredible puzzlement with which we would be met when, for example, in the normal course of conversation, more or less irrelevant or irreverant subject matter was, without warning, suddently introduced. Getting the athletes out of the blue line mind set was especially important because business environments rarely provide such reliable static zones in which one can focus one's objectives.

From a strict pedagogical standpoint we adapted a number of ESL fundamentals which have been set forth by Audrey Wright. (10)

1. We let our participants do most of the talking, as soon as that approach became feasible. They were initially nervous about saying much out loud, and were understandably intimidated by the presence of their instructors and observers. As Islander Brian Trotier pointed out to me, "we are very dedicated to this but imagine yourself on the ice facing us."

Fortunately though, there was no need to wean the participants away from trying to calculate, rationalize, or construct logical solutions to every problem. Their lack of high level educations, and their orientation toward a sport which relied more on finesse than anything else, made them amenable to the idea that their performance in American business culture would rely on habit derived from custom and usage, more than from manipulation of data. Though the ability to perform the later task is critical, we felt it would be acquired more quickly in formal training taken up later in or near the workplace.

On the other hand, breaking down team mentality, not where it provided support and positive reinforcement, but where it became a crutch, was somewhat more difficult. If nothing else, emotionally it was difficult to convey that upon entering a business environment, the reality of sacrafice, one player for another or for the team, was not the embracing norm that perhaps it ought to be.

2. Correcting errors, a matter which is quite routine in traditional classrooms, was to say the least, a delicate matter in the case of "kids" in their early or mid-twenties who were already accustomed to a higher degree of social, professional, and economic reinforcement than most of us experience in a lifetime. The brighter and more mature athletes understood and adapted themselves rather energetically to the facts of their present environment. But some, especially the younger and less bright ones became sullen and withdrawn. To their credit, and clearly because of the team's support structure, only one actually left the program prior to its conclusion.

3. Audry Wright says that "mastering a language is like building a house of bricks: one brick must be laid at a time." If so, mastering a culture is like building a city. It can only be achieved by uncovering existing foundations and structures, and completing an already existing framework. We accepted that the foundations upon which we were building were not always solid ones, but we uncovered strengths where they existed and expanded the reach of those strengths as far as was tenable.

4. It is said in an ESL situation that it is valuable to insist on plenty of repetition, and perhaps in that area this program was wholly unorthodox. Each of our athletes had already mastered a language and culture of his own constuction, and had done so in most cases with great depth and intensity. As well as it might build new foundations, such a process

appeared to contain the very ingredients which would alienate and discourage our participants. There was a great deal of anguish in this area -- it is hard to build a building on an incomplete foundation, but that is exactly what we had to do. Anything else would have amounted to a futile exercise.

5. Finally, encouragement is thought of as perhaps the most basic and one of the most useful pedagogical tools in a situation such as this one. We tried to make our evaluation tools in particular encouraging ones. Our approach was novel, it was cute, and it did help the players see, in their own terms, how we interpreted their progress. (See Appendix A)

A dozen or more individuals, institutions, and businesses are working to assist professional athletes with post retirement career development. Those which are concerned with hockey players tend to direct their efforts to helping former players pass tests. While that objective is an important one, it is certainly not sufficient to meet the true personal and professional objectives of many retired hockey players.

Any concern for post-retirement prospects for professional hockey players must be expressed during the player's career and must qualify him not as a scholar, but as an individual who has the personal resources, debth, and focus to market himself while simaltaneously growing to meet the challenges he is uncovering.

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Notes:

1. John Fitzmaurice, *Quebec and Canada*, p. 14. St. Martins Press, NY, 1985.
2. Fitzmaurice, p. 17.
3. Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, Toronto, 1986.
4. Everett Hughs, *French Canada in Transition*, p. 166. University of Chicago Press, 1963.
5. Ken Dreyden, *The Game*, p. 23. Macmillian of Canada, Toronto, 1983.
6. Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism.
7. The Atlantic Council Working Group on the U.S. and Canada, *Canada and the United States*, p. 26. Ballinger, New York, 1986.
8. Dreyden, p. 24.
9. Dreyden, p. 216.
10. Audrey Wright, quoted in K. Croft, ed. *Readings on English as a Second Language*, pp. 8-11. Winthrop, Cambridge, Mass., 1972

GAME # 3

DATE 2/17 HOME ✓ AWAY

M. Brady (Team) (Score) VS. D. Sobel (Team) (Score)

REMARKS about the Team (as the game progresses)

Weaknesses Check List **Period**	**One**	**Two**	**Three**
Skating OVERALL PERFORMANCE	E		
Passing (good/bad) WRITTEN EXERCISES	G		
Shooting (close/far, good/bad) ORAL RESPONSES	E		
Visiting Team's shots (good/bad) ROL. W/INSTRUCTOR	✓		
Hitting (body checking/bumping) ORAL INITIATIVE	P		
Getting beaten to the puck VOLUNTEER RESPONSES	P		
Losing control of puck along boards	P		
Taking our eyes off the puck CONCENTRATION	S		
Fail to pressure puck carrier	S		
Carrying puck rather than passing STUDY HABITS	P		
Fail to pick up trailer	P		
Standing around too much	S		
Defensive mistakes by forwards QUIZES	S		
Defensive mistakes by defense EXERCISES	P		
Point covering in our zone	✓		
Deflected shots from point	✓		
Slot covering in our zone	✓		
~~Team~~ balance INDIVIDUAL	✓		
Shifts are too long	G		
Break-out system	G		
Defensive zone play QUESTIONING	G		
Shots blocked by defense RESPONSE SKILL	E		
Checking in defensive zone VERBAL CREAT.	✓		
Giveaways in defensive zone WRITTEN CREAT.	E		
Rebounds in defensive zone VERBAL—WRITTEN	E		
Neutral zone play ASSOC. OF CONCEPTS	✓		
Checking in neutral zone	P		
Giveaways in neutral zone	P		
Offensive zone play OVERALL INIT.	G		
Offensive attacks (broke/complete)			
Forechecking of visiting team 1, 2 or 3 men in	G		
Checking in offensive zone			
Giveaways in neutral zone	✓		
Rebounds in offensive zone	✓		
Faceoffs controlled (good/bad)	G		
Bad goals from face-off	E		
Bad goals beg./end of period	P		
Penalties (good/~~bad~~)	G		
Bad angle goals	G		
Goalies weaknesses or fault	✓		
Penalty-killing unit	G		
Power-play unit	E		
Number of good scoring chances	80%		

VI. TEACHING LANGUAGES AND CULTURES FOR BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONS

FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR BUSINESS AS A LIBERAL ART: A RATIONALE AND A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE (1917-1987)

by

Professor Roberta Seabrook
Iowa State University

FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR BUSINESS AS A LIBERAL ART: A RATIONALE AND A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE (1917-1987)

Roberta Seabrook
Iowa State University

The past decade has seen the proliferation of foreign language courses for business and the professions. These courses are generally labeled non-traditional, and are often viewed as alien to the liberal arts curriculum. I'd like to show that this view is rather limited and is a product of generational attitudes and national prejudices. To do so we need to review the role of business language courses in pre-World War II period. Let's go back to the turn of the century when foreign language study in the United States reached its peak.[1] In 1900 almost 75% of all public high school students studied a foreign language. 51% were enrolled in Latin, and 22% studied a modern language. Over the years the study of Latin declined, and, ultimately, almost disappeared in many states. One would have expected a corresponding increase in the percentage of students taking a modern language, but... this was not the case! Some of us remember the language boom of the Sputnick era. However, by the late 60's foreign language requirements were being dropped at the college level causing the percentage of students studying a foreign language to take a nose dive. By 1979 when Carter's President's Commission on Foreign Languages was formed, enrollment had reached an all-time low. By 1981 the first programs to attempt a remedy were in place. Between 1981 and 1985 enrollment in some states doubled, and tripled. In 1987 we at long last met and even slightly exceeded the status quo of the pre-World War I period with respect to modern languages. Again slightly more than 22% of public school students are enrolled in modern foreign languages, including Chinese, Japanese and Russian.

As instructors of foreign language for business courses we need to take a long hard look at the reasons for the "booms" of the teens, 60's and 80's. Until the turn of the century French was the preferred idiom of business and diplomacy. Then our eyes turned first to Latin America, and subsequently to the rest of Europe as war spurred on economic growth and foreign trade. The study of Spanish increased rapidly, and soon course work was tailored to meet commercial as well as cultural needs. Max Luria's business Spanish text, Correspondencia Comercial, written for use in New York City high schools appeared in 1917. It was adopted for use by many colleges across the country, too.[2] Indeed its level of difficulty is that of today's standard third-year college text. In 1941 an updated and greatly expanded edition appeared: war was still the primary promoter of growth. This edition was in wide use right through the early sixties when commercial languages courses fell out of favor.[3]

We must remember that the yuppy generation did not signal the initiation of such courses, only the resuscitation of late foreign language education have taken a rather short-term overview of events by focusing on the second half of the century.

We do, however, need to stress this contrast between the 50's and 80's. In the 50's the space race and a concern for national security prompted the flow of government funds into the development of programs in the so-called "critical" languages. However, the present "boom" comes from an economic imperative. Business and government are alarmed by America's growing inability to compete in international markets. Dr. J. David Edwards of the Joint National Committee for Foreign Language says it succinctly: "Toyota has become the Sputnick of the 80's."[4] I'll offer one last statistic, one which strikes *terror* in the hearts of some humanists. It is Wilga River's contention that by the turn of the century 60 percent of foreign languages instruction will be in the so-called "nontraditional" areas. Literature programs, according to Rivers, will not decrease in number, but will make up some 40 percent of the total structure (9). Is the current interest in applied language study a flash in the pan? Critics point to the short-lived boom of the 50's and early 60's. I think not! We need to reexamine the past - and reexamine it with a perspective broader than that of the last 40 years.

We might start by comparing the period of the *1860*'s, 70's and 80's with the *1960*'s, 70's and 80's. In the earlier century we see a clash between positivism and transcendentalism, between social realism and art for art's sake. We have, of course, seen this polarity reflected and repeated throughout history. But the current clash between esthetic values and economic imperatives leaves no room for compromise. How did we get to this point? At the turn of the century writers and artists rejected the values of the ever-growing bourgeoisie. Since scientific and economic progress had become synonymous with the rise of the middle class, it became anathema to the new breed of writers. By 1910 modern writers and scientists were lamenting the divorce of science and literature, a concern which remained fairly constant throughout the century. Yet in the realm of education the sciences and humanities drifted farther apart, and humanists recoiled from the new "professionalism." As humanists we've only ourselves to blame. Money *is* the root of our problem, but it is also a powerful motive for positive change. Aristotle said it in the fewest words: "Poverty is the parent of revolution" (95). Let's also remember ancient Egypt where the patron deity of literature, Thoth, was also the god of science and trade. Yes, if we look back over the centuries, we see an obvious pattern of contrasts in our social and literary history from the classic period to the Enlightenment: decline and splendor, romanticism and positivism, etc. However, the great minds of these periods embraced all disciplines and concerns. Nowhere in these swings of the pendulum do we find the schism that we find in the post-World War II period in this nation. In a few decades we've moved from the vision of a "brave new world" to a bad dream which gives us a glimpse of a coming century when literacy, once again, is for the privileged few.

It is true we need to reintroduce the liberal arts in the overall curriculum. But our students need to expand their horizons also, if they are to participate in this new 'age of enlightenment' which seems to be upon us. I could quote Marx or Engels on the role of art and literature in society. Or, I could quote Lenin whose passion for classical literature recalled his equally passionate opposition to capitalism. But-- I'd much rather quote Ralph Waldo Emerson, that gentle mystical soul who said:

> Money, which represents the prose of life, and which is hardly spoken of in parlors without an apology, is in its effects and laws, as beautiful as roses. (   )

If these words were uttered by anyone in the liberal arts today, it would be by an economist, not by a poet and, today, economics departments are viewed as the enemy within, while the enemies without are the natural sciences and business.

How can we as foreign language educators help to achieve a synthesis, and a return to educating the 'whole' person in this age of specialization? First, we have to define our weaknesses as humanists and as teachers of language, and literature. Alan Bloom, author of academia's current bestseller, The Closing of the American Mind: How Higher Education Has Failed Democaracy and Impoverished the Souls of Today's Students sees the humanities as "dispossessed" and in search of an "imaginary empire, one that flatters popular democratic tastes." (380) Instead of putting up walls we should try to reintegrate our disciplines into the union. Bloom reminds us of this:

> The humanities are the specialty that now exclusively possesses the books that are not specialized, that insist upon asking the questions about the whole that are excluded from the rest of the university, which is dominated by real specialities, as resistant to self-examination as they were in Socrates' day and now rid of the gadfly... The kinds of questions children ask: Is there a God? Is there freedom? Is there punishment for evil deeds? Is there certain knowledge? What is a good society? were once also the questions addressed by science and philosophy. But now the grownups are too busy at work, and the children are left in a day-care center called the humanities, in which the discussions have no echo in the adult world. (372)

The problems outlined by Bloom are to a certain degree more in evidence in the United States. Although Bloom deals with this, he does not go far enough and is somewhat myopic. Novelist Saul Bellow wrote the "Foreword" to The Closing of the American Mind.... His remarks reflect our collective tendency to divorce philosophic and pragmatic ideals:

> Romantic poets and other edifying theorists of the nineteenth century had it wrong--poets and novelists will never be the legislators and teachers of mankind. That poets--artists--should give new eyes to human beings, inducing them to view the world differently, converting them from fixed modes of experience, is ambition enough, if one must offer a purposive account of the artist's project. What makes that project singularly difficult is the disheartening expansion of trained ignorance and bad thought. For to put the matter at its baldest, we live in a thought-world,

> and the thinking has gone very bad indeed. Therefore the artist, whether or not he views himself as an intellectual, is involved in thought-struggles. Thinking alone will never cure what ails him, and any artist should be grateful for a naive grace which puts him beyond the need to reason elaborately. (10-11)

The French have undergone the age of deconstruction in the last decade. Their weaknesses have become ours as French theory dominated American literary circles. France has experienced a similar crisis in higher education and is also in the process of attempting self analysis. Foremost among these critics is Michel Serres, the philosopher of science. He suggests a new role for the humanists - the parasite (le parasite): we need to bore from within to reinsinuate ourselves in the system.

How are we to begin the offense? As teachers of language for business and of cross-cultural values we are in a front-line position. Our courses should not only have a cross-cultural and linguistic perspective, but should also provide insights into historical and economic issues. Ethics, literature and philosophy have their place in the business-language classroom also.

To illustrate this point I'd like to briefly discuss how this could be implemented in a business Spanish course. The literary and political realities of Latin America make this an easy task. Hispanic culture benefits from the somewhat unique perspective of the poet-diplomat or the writer-politician. The Latin American poet or novelist often is a writer, literary critic, philosopher, cultural anthropologist, politician and economist all at the same time. I'd like to mention a few texts I use in the course of a one-year business Spanish course. The poems of Pablo Neruda, Ernesto Cardenal and Nicolas Guillen offer many, many examples which serve to stimulate discussions on cultural differences and how negative Latin American perceptions of North America affect our working relationships. Their language and style are simple and colloquial and present few textual difficulties. In our units on finance and banking we, of course, need to discuss the problem of the staggering debt owed by Latin American countries to foreign banks. We supplement our text with current articles from Spanish language news magazines and newspapers such as Vision (Mexico) or El Economista (Buenos Aires). In the Latin American daily press we find that the most articulate and interesting articles and interviews on foreign-debt restructuring are always those of best-selling novelists Carlos Fuentes (Mexico) and Mario Vergas LLosa (Peru). The list of possibilities is long, including, for example, Gabriel Garcia Marquez (Colombia), Ariel Dorfman (Chile) or philosopher Arturo Risieri Frondizi (Argentina).[4]

Obviously the aspects of these writers that we discuss are of value to students of literature as well as to majors in marketing or finance. This is a very strong argument for making a language for business course a requisite for the 'traditional' major. And, of course, a course which is broad-based will not only better serve the students whose first major is business, it will often interest them in the literature and civilization offerings.

The most successful tool in achieving this inter-disciplinary cross-fertilization is the presence on campus of a speaker who is at home in both worlds. The two speakers who have had the most to offer the business Spanish students in my classes at Iowa State University were the Latin American novelists Carlos Fuentes and Ariel Dorfman! The literature majors were at a disadvantage at these sessions: they realized they needed to learn a lot more about contemporary Latin American society. We need to use this and any other tool which lends itself to our effort to discourage literary or utilitarian tunnel vision.

In our efforts to stop the current generation of students from catching a non-stop express train to the MBA we need to take the offensive. This means active cooperation between foreign language departments and faculty members in business and technological departments. In the initial stages of implementing language-for-business programs this, of course, means inviting active participation by the business faculty in course development. We need to Follow Serres' admonition: we need the flexibility of the amoeba to adapt to a world situation which changes every decade due to the pressures of our new information economy. We must become "parasites" in order to survive.

Notes

[1] Statistics in this paragraph are based on Larry Rohter's study in the New York Times.

[2] This premise is based on conversations with Luria family members as well as on the large number of copies of the first edition I've found at used book sales across the country from New York to Minnesota with the student's name and institution inscribed on the flyleaf. So far I've found no evidence suggesting its use west of the Rockies. Luria was chair of the Foreign Language Department at DeWitt Clinton High School in New York, and subsequently the chair of Romance Languages at Brooklyn College, CUNY. His text was in use at my own alma mater, Adelphi College, for at least 30 years.

[3] I and my contemporary Spanish and French majors in the early 60's were often required to take a commercial language course as part of the major.

[4] I have not cited specific texts as there is an abundance of possibilities. However, one essay which would not immediately come to mind should be mentioned, Fuentes essay on Melville and Moby Dick. Fuentes sees Moby Dick as an industrial epic. In it he lays out the basic differences between the American and Latin American ways of life, and deals with the ever-present conflict between pragmatism and vision.

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6-28

INTERMEDIATE-LEVEL FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES FOR BBA STUDENTS

by

Professor Manuel J. Ortuño
and
Professor David M. Uber

Baylor University

Intermediate-Level Foreign Language Courses for BBA Students

by

Manuel J. Ortuño and David M. Uber

Before my colleague and I turn to our main topic, intermediate-level foreign language courses for undergraduate business administration students, let me first give you some information about the university where these courses are being taught.

Baylor University, in central Texas midway between Dallas and Austin, has an enrollment of approximately 11,500 students. About 1,500 are graduate and professional students and about 10,000 are undergraduates. In 1987 some 500 graduate and professional degrees were awarded, and of these, approximately 150 or 30% were business related, MBA's, MS's in Economics, and so on. During the same period, some 2,000 bachelor's degrees were awarded, and of these, roughly 800 or 40% were BBA's. The few figures just quoted begin to tell the story of how important business studies are to the university.

A dozen years ago, various entities within Baylor University which were engaged in graduate education, among them the School of Business and the Department of Political Science, began making an effort to internationalize their programs of study. In conjunction with one another, Business and Political Science put together a master's program in International Management. One of the degree requirements decided upon was proficiency in a foreign language. The Department of Foreign Languages was contacted during the planning stages and asked to contribute in the areas of language instruction and testing. In addition, the directors of the proposed program indicated quite clearly the kind of foreign language proficiency they wanted their students to have. I recall their sending me as guidelines a couple of Xeroxed pages from the catalog of the Fletcher School of International Law and Diplomacy of Tufts University which outlined the levels of speaking and reading proficiency it required of its students. Incidently, the Fletcher School drew upon the Foreign Service Institute rating system, and so as you can see, a proficiency based evaluation of foreign language ability began making inroads into academia some years before the concerted and very admirable actions of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.

It is especially noteworthy that the initiative, the planning, and even the specifications of the foreign language component for Baylor's Master's of International Management came not from the Department of Foreign Languages, but from the School of Business and the Department of Political Science. I am not suggesting that Foreign Language Departments stand by idly and then bow to the wishes of anyone who decides to set up a program with an international slant. I am suggesting, however, that there are academics in business and other fields who know the value of foreign language proficiency and cross-cultural adaptability and who have good ideas on how to work these skills into their programs of study. Those of us who are professors of foreign languages should identify these individuals, get in touch with them, and encourage and aid them in their endeavors.

Largely because of the success of the Master's of International

Management, several administrators and faculty members of the School of Business began looking for ways to give their undergraduate program an international focus. At first, foreign language was simply added to the list of possible areas of study that would fulfill the humanities and social sciences requirement for the BBA. It quickly became apparent from the small number of students selecting foreign language that a greater incentive was needed. The next step, which produced better results, was to offer BBA students the clear option of taking 11 hours of foreign language in lieu of 6 hours of humanities and social science, 4 hours of natural science, and 1 hour of health and personal development. This coming year, students will be maneuvered even more effectively in the direction of foreign language study because of the way the new edition of the School of Business Bulletin outlines the general, non-professional requirements for the BBA. "Option I" includes 11 hours of foreign language, while "Option II" allows students to substitute for the foreign language certain courses in humanities, social and natural sciences, and health and personal development. The idea conveyed is that foreign language study is preferable and indeed expected.

The question that immediately comes to mind is: "At what level of proficiency will a student be after only 11 semester hours, that is, after slightly less than 200 50-minute periods of foreign language instruction?" The answer depends, of course, on what kind of foreign language preparation he or she has to begin with, which courses are taken, and how much work is actually done in the courses.

Let's look at two cases, one from either end of the spectrum. The student with little or no prior preparation would enroll in our standard eight-hour, two-course sequence in elementary foreign language and then follow up with a three-hour, intermediate-level course designed especially for business students. I have had students of Spanish who have traveled this route, and those who made a good effort attained a speaking, reading, and cultural proficiency of 1 or Intermediate on the Foreign Service Institute-American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages rating scale. Time will not permit me to quote a full description of this level of proficiency, but it is characterized by FSI and ACTFL as consisting of the ability "to satisfy most survival needs and limited social demands." Let's turn now to the student who has had several years of productive foreign language instruction in high school. He or she would begin with the three-hour, intermediate-level course in foreign language for business. Then he or she might follow up with a standard three-hour conversation course. I have had students of Spanish who have come this far, and I would still rate them 1 or Intermediate. If, however, the student were to take the final five hours in the way I am about to describe, I believe he or she could attain a 2 or Advanced rating. Without going into detail, this level of proficiency encompasses the ability "to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements." Back now to our student, if he or she were to enroll in one of Baylor's five-week summer study programs in France, Germany, or Spain, a rating of 2 or Advanced might well be achieved. The student could take a standard three-hour culture course and a special two-hour, mostly independent study, course on the business practices of the host country. Let me emphasize that all that has just been said regarding study abroad and the BBA student has not yet taken place and is therefore hypothetical. It is very probable, though, that by the summer of 1989 we will have some BBA students completing the sequence of foreign language courses in this manner.

What I feel is distinctive about Baylor University's foreign language instruction for BBA students is that it strikes a practical balance between the desires and capabilities of each of the parties concerned. The School of Business, through creative leadership and persistence, has succeeded in putting in place a foreign language option that is truly utilitarian but does not compromise either the prebusiness or professional core curriculum. The Foreign Language Department has integrated courses in Intermediate French, German, and Spanish for Business into its standard course offerings in a way which serves the BBA students without neglecting the needs of other students. Finally, the BBA students, I believe, are aware of the advantages of being proficient in a foreign language and, within the constraints of a demanding schedule, make a genuine effort to acquire speaking, reading, and cultural skills, and to combine them with their business studies and their career plans.

Intermediate-Level Foreign Language Courses for BBA Students

Part II

by

Manuel J. Ortuño and David M. Uber

When the new intermediate-level foreign language course for BBA students was being developed at Baylor University, the Department of Modern Foreign Languages asked the Business School about course objectives. They replied they would like their students to be able to express themselves in everyday situations suitable to the business world: cashing a check at a bank, making acquaintances and introductions, reservations at an airlines counter, at a restaurant, etc. Second, they wanted their students to be able to read and understand a business article from a journal or magazine. This could be from *Expansion* a French commerce journal or the business column from *L'Express*, *Spiegel*, or *Cambio 16*. Third, the student should be able to understand the speaker in a foreign language. Thus, the ability to carry on a practical conversation (speaking and listening skills) and to understand a business article. A fourth desire was later added--a broadened cultural overview of the target country (France, Germany, Spain, Latin America). The culture was accessed through readings, videotapes and guest speakers.

By limiting the focus to the development of three skills--speaking, listening and reading--we were able to eliminate a formal grammar review and composition, normally part of a third-semester language class. Because of the specialized nature of our course, we were also able to target specific business texts and forgo literary and cultural passages. By eliminating the above, we could economize our effort and zero in on developing proficiency skills. Although we felt the necessity to "sneak in" some grammar review, we did this on the sly and it was always ancillary since we had no grammar text. The Spanish and German business texts had brief grammar notes and the French book had no grammar at all. Deep grammatical explanations were shunned and students were not tested on grammar.

Students and instructors immediately felt "instant relief" from grammar, composition and literary discussion omnipresent in traditional third-semester language courses. And all this was legitimate and possible because it was a special course tailored to fit the needs of many business students wanting a terminal language course. They were also receiving credit for this course as a business elective.

All three instructors felt the need to speak entirely in the target language by acting out dialogues or role playing in a specific business situation, and discussing reading assignments. In some classes, the dialogue was memorized in whole or in part, in others it was merely read. In all classes, students improvised a dialogue. Most were based on familiar situations: a telephone conversation, a job interview, banking, inquiring about starting and expanding a business, reserving a room and ordering a meal. Students were often called on to use newly acquired business vocabulary. Dialogues shown on videotape were replayed and stopped at certain points, whereupon the instructor checked for listening comprehension. Audio tapes could be used as well, however, students responded better to video.

Since one indicator of the student's ability to function at the intermediate level (level 2 in the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines) is creating in the language (rather than merely spouting forth memorized chunks of vocabulary or expressions) it is important that students often practice acting out situations. The situations can have much the same form and function as the ACTFL oral proficiency interview cards that many foreign language teachers use and have seen at proficiency workshops.

Situation One: "You are a post office employee. A customer asks you if you can help him or her. You tell him to wait. Then you ask him what he wants." That was a short one involving a one- or two-sentence response. Here's one that is more elaborate.

Situation Two: "You call up (or visit) an insurance broker and you describe the type of insurance you want. You ask the broker to give you an estimate of the premium based on the value of the goods you want insured. You're shocked by his estimate, and you explain that there is no way that you can afford it." Those of us familiar with the ACTFL situation cards will see some similarities:

1. The situation is precise. The instructor obtains a sample of the student's ability to create in the target language.

2. The explanation of the situation is in English so as not to give away key words.

There are, however, some differences. The situations are slanted toward people interested in business opportunities. You are, for example, an insurance broker, a postal employee, or a bank client about to take out a loan or check on a letter of credit. The vocabulary is business specific. Foreign language equivalents of the words "premium," "estimate," and "liability" would make most students cringe or take off and run. I cannot resist quoting the reassuring words at the bottom of the ACTFL situation card that the poor student reads:

> "We realize that you may not have the exact vocabulary for this situation but do the best you can . . . "

Now, I am not saying that the student of the intermediate business foreign language course will keep a steady hand as he nervously reads the situation card. He, however, should have acquired the specific vocabulary during the lesson. Circumlocution is still appropriate in many situations, but from a professional point of view it helps to know the equivalent words for monthly statement or retainer. So what we have tried to do is combine business vocabulary acquisition, a laborious but necessary duty, with the development of communication skills.

One final word about dialogues. Not all instructors use them. Situations, nevertheless, can often take off from dialogues, give the students the chance to create with the language, and use business-specific vocabulary. One way to do situations is to divide the class into groups of two and have them role-play with the teacher standing a respectable distance away. This is a pleasant change from rapid-fire drilling and tends to reduce anxiety among the language learners.

Receiving much attention today is the development of reading comprehension through the use of pre-reading strategies. Unfortunately, the text books we used had little or no pre-reading exercises. In this course, it is important to overcome the readers' "angst" or fear of confronting a business article in French, German, or Spanish. I remember literally seeing some of my charges sink into their seats the first time we looked at a technical newspaper story.

To lessen this instant anxiety trip, we did what is pretty much coming to be standard operating procedure--to assure students that understanding the gist or the message of the passage is important, not word by word or total comprehension. The identification of cognates, contextual guessing, location and underlining of main sentence or paragraph ideas (of particular importance in business news articles), identification of similar roots, thematically related words, skimming and scanning all help students to overcome their anxiety. Scanning titles and subheadings is a good pre-reading activity and the journalistic summing up of the story in the first paragraph of most articles is also helpful.

Our goal at the outset of the course was to increase reading comprehension skills to the point where the student could pick up a business article at semester's end and understand the gist. Sample business pieces in the textbook were supplemented by current copies of business articles from news magazines and trade journals.

Although much business vocabulary was covered, students had to use these words in context and were required to string together sentences to respond to a particular situation. They could do this reading dialogues and acting out situations. Business terminology was also evident in selected articles that we covered as well as in realia: bank statements, hotel bills, restaurant checks, insurance forms, train tickets, even medicine labels--all used to overcome somewhat the artificiality of the foreign language business class taught in the United States.

Other activities that we experimented with included class visits by foreign language speakers--some of whom were business people. In the Spanish Business Class this was especially successful (I didn't think that Professor Ortuño could tear the speaker away from the students or vice/versa). Many students asked questions and the whole talk was done in the target language. The classes also took a trip to the library to see where foreign language business journals and magazines were kept, watched video tape presentations of current events and even an episode in German of the popular soap Dallas (the oil industry). Students went on their own to the language lab to see the Dallas videotape and had to write a summary of what they heard. We even encouraged students to do outside readings (newspapers, magazines) on economic, social and political structures of the country or region. Finally, a few students also attended a monthly meeting of the Dallas chapter of the French-American Chamber of Commerce and were able to talk and visit with international bankers, lawyers, importers, exporters, members of the French Trade Commission, even a representative of the Madeleine Bakery Chain. (They had a sweet time.)

The intermediate-level foreign language course for BBA students had a large measure of success for the first time at our university because it was able to attract and motivate students wishing to improve their ability to handle themselves in some routine business situations in French, German, or Spanish. The program succeeded also because it was able to concentrate on developing speaking, listening, and reading skills, while not being shackled to the demands of the traditional second-year course: grammar review and literary readings.

The course will continue, we feel, to be welcomed by BBA students who not only see it as a way to fulfill the new language option in the Hankamer Business School, but also wish to strive toward obtaining an intermediate level of proficiency in the foreign language and who hope to travel and work overseas one day.

What is Business Japanese?: Designing a Japanese Course for Business Communication

by

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An increasing number of U.S. universities offer or plan to develop a business Japanese course or program. Despite the growing interest, little has been discussed on such key questions as: what is business Japanese?; what are realistic goals of a program?; and how do we design courses in business Japanese? The primay aim of this paper is to stimulate discussion on these questions among those interested in this new frontier in cross-cultural commnication. For this purpose, I will report on my experiences at Eastern Michigan University in developing business Japanese courses for the major in Language and International Trade program. After presenting one conception of "business Japanese," I will focus discussion on how and to what extent the culture component should be incorporated into business Japanese.

Background

Eastern Michigan University's undergraduate major in Language and International Trade program "is designed to integrate the study of modern foreign languages and cultures with preparation in the fields of international business" (EMU Undergraduate Catalog 1987-88, p. 110). Students are required to take thirty-six semester hours in courses in business, economics and area studies. In addition students must specialize in French, German, Japanese or Spanish. In 1987 six new courses in Japanese were proposed (pending official approval) in order to add Japanese as a language in which to specialize. The six proposed courses and the existing beginning and intermediate Japanese courses amount to thirty-eight semester hours. Although students are required to take eighteen hours in their chosen language, the prerequisites in Japanese are set up in such a way that students with no prior study of Japanese usually must complete thirty-eight hours (some prerequisites may be waved with department permission). The thirty-eight hours of Japanese courses are as follows:

JPN 121 and 122 Beginning Japanese I and II (10 hours)
JPN 211 and 212 Intermediate Japanese I and II (10 hours)
JPN 343 Japanese Conversation (3 hours)
JPN 344 Japanese Composition (3 hours)
JPN 361 Japanese for International Trade (3 hours)
JPN 444 Advanced Japanese Conversation (3 hours)
JPN 446 Business Japanese I (3 hours)
JPN 447 Business Japanese II (3 hours)

Students in Japanese must complete the three business Japanese courses: JPN 361 Japanese for International Trade, JPN 446 and 447 Business Japanese I and II. The same language requirement also applies to EMU's new program Language and World Business, which is a joint-degree program combining the requirements of the Bachelor of Business Administration and the Bachelor of Arts in Language and International Trade.

Business Japanese

One may reasonably assume that effective cross-cultural communication in business environments requires both language skills and understanding of how business is conducted in foreign cultures. Base on this assumption, business Japanese is here defined as the study of Japanese language and culture for business communication. "Culture" for business communication (hereinafter business culture) is used here in a broad sense, including business customs and practices as well as norms and values business people act on. Defined as such, business Japanese is far more than a study of the idiom and terminology of Japanese business. The study of business Japanese must help students to understand how and why the Japanese way of doing business differs from the American way or others.

Culture Component of Business Japanese

One of my major questions in developing business Japanese courses has been how and to what extent the culture component should be incorporatead. Suppose that students study the culture component all in Japanese, that is, not only through class lecture and discussion in Japanese but also through instructional materials explained in Japanese. In this case, students' proficiency levels suggest that their learning of the business culture will be very limited in quantity, if not in quality. On the other hand, more English is used in class and more English materials are used, the less opportunity will be given to students to improve their Japanese. There is certainly a trade off between how much of the language they can learn and how much of the culture they can learn. A key question is how much of Japanese business culture should be studied in English. My decisions regarding this matter are as follows:

1. Since JPN 446 and JPN 447 are advanced Japanese courses, the classes will be conducted primarily in Japanese.

2. Since JPN 366 is an introductory course of business Japanese, the class will be conducted approximately fifty percent in Japanese.
3. Students will study about fifty percent of the culture component in English primarily as homework assignments, which will constitute part of the preparation for class presentation and discussion in Japanese.

Whether the last point suggests a strong commitment to the culture component is a matter of personal judgement. In my judgement the answer is affrmative, considering the fact that the three courses are part of the language requirements for the major in Language and International Trade. In the following I will try to explain the reasons for emphasizing the culture component, discussing eight assumptions I have made on students' needs and characteristics, the job market, and institutional resoruces and constraints.

Eight Assumptions

In order to establish program goals, it is essential to evaluate how much students can realistically learn in four years. Proficiency tests are useful in considering realistic goals, but their value is limited until the fully operational program generates enough students to test. In fact, there were no candidates for proficiency tests when proposals were made for creating business Japanese courses. Therefore, I have made the following assumptions on how much students can realistically learn:

1. Most students cannot achieve a near native proficiency in Japanese in

four years when they start learning Japanese at college.

2. To most American students, speaking Japanese is much easier than reading and/or writing Japanese, which requires to memorize an enoumous number of kanji or Chinese characters.
3. Even though speaking Japanese is much easier, most students need to spend at least six months in Japan after finishing intermediate Japanese so that they may attain "advanced level" in the ACTFL oral proficiency guidelines by the time they graduate.
4. Students can learn much about Japanese business culture in a relatively short period of time when they study it primarily in English.

These assumptions lead to some speculations on what we can and what cannot expect our graduates to do in Japanese business environments and in dealings with Japanese business people. For example, our graduates cannot be expected:

a. to function as a professional interpreter for an advanced business negotiation which discusses detailed technical topics.
b. to effectively function as a translator of technical and scientific materials
c. to effectively write formal business letters in Japanese.

On the other hand, our graduates may be expected:

d. to acquire enough communication skills and knowledge of Japanese business culture to avoid misunderstanding which might result due to the lack of cultural awareness and sensitivity.

e. to function in orally communicating with Japanese business people and clients in informal business settings.

f. to learn how to socialize with Japanese personnel and clients in order to build up ningen kankei or interpersonal relations, which are essential for establishing and maintaining successful business relations with Japanese companies.

Like other undergraduate Japanese programs in liberal arts, our program is not designed to meet the demand for professional interpreters and translators. It is essential to investigate what other qualifications are being sought in the job market. For lack of sufficient first-hand data, I have made the following assumptions:

5. Most companies regard cross-cultural communication skills taught at liberal arts colleges as secondary to a strong background in business, engineering, computer, or some other marketable skills. However, the study of business Japanese enhances the marketability of students in business or some other fields.
6. The value of understanding Japanese business culture is not fully appreciated by U.S. business communities.

Business people who do not speak Japanese will appreciate the value of an interpreter in that they at least know they have to rely on him/her in communicating with the Japanese. However, the same business people may not acknoledge the significance of understanding business culture and having cultural sensitivity: they may not be aware of what they should know when dealing with the Japanese. An interpreter will not function as an effective substitute for one's cultural sensitivity and understanding of Japanese business culture.

Two more assumptions were made on the basis of which to evaluate the significance of the culture component of business Japanese:

7. While the number of Americans who study Japanese will increase, English remains a dominant language in business between American and Japanese business people.

Although most Japanese cannot speak English with a near-native proficiency, many Japanese business people can function or at least survive in English speaking environments. Those Japanese business people and graduates of our program can be complementary to each other in oral communication.

8. Undergraduate students in advanced Japanese language classes know little of Japanese business culture. To those students the marginal return of studying Japanese business culture is relatively large while the marginal return of further studying Japanese is relatively small.

An additional small unit of time spent on studying Japanese will make little difference in improving proficiency of students in advanced Japanese classes. An additional semester hour, for example, is not likely to have a great effect on students' overall proficiency levels at the time of their graduation. On the other hand, the expected gain of understanding and knowledge of Japanese business culture is considered large when students spend the first semester hour on studying the culture primarily in English. It seems that the lost opportunity to improve the langauge skills is small,

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and the cost will be far exceeded by the gain of understanding Japanese business culture.

The above discussion is summarized as follows: the culture component should be emphasized because it provides students with understanding and knowledge essential for dealing with the Japanese, while the lost opportunity to study Japanese hardly affects students' overall progress in proficiency in the language.

Japanese business culture may be incorporated into a course in such fields as business, anthropology, and sociology when it is taught all in English. In this case there should be co-ordination between a Japanese language instructor and an instructor who is strong in Japanese culture, business and economy. Even under this arrangement an instructor of business Japanese should be knowledgable of Japanese business and economy. The problem is that it is hard to find an instructor of Japanese who has also a strong background in business or social sciences. This situation will continue as a division of labor seems to be widening between those specializing in linguistics and/or Japanese pedagogy and those in other areas of Japanese studies including the Japanese literature.

Three Proposed Courses in Business Japanese

In 1987 three new courses in business Japanese were proposed with emphasis on the culture component. JPN 361 Japanese for International Trade focues on how to deal or negotiate with the Japanese; JPN 446 Business Japanese I provides an overview of the environments (economy, market structure, etc) in which the Japanese conduct business; and JPN 447 Business Japanese II takes a close look at the system of organization and personnel relations of the Japanese corporation. Although none of the courses have been officially offered JPN 361 was experimentarilly offered for the 1988 winter semester under an independent study. A brief description of each course is provoded in the following.

JPN 361 Japanese for International Trade is intended as an introduction to Japanese business culture and business communication in Japanese. This course provides an opportunity for comparative analysis of American and Japanese cultural patterns in business settings. Exercises in business communcation in Japanese focus on speaking skills with emphasis on further study of honorific and humble polite expressions. Students are expected to learn how to deal with Japanese business people in Japanese speaking environments. About fifty percent of the class will be conducted in Japanese. Topics to be covered will include:

a. basic cultural concepts for business communication
b. the Japanese business etiquette
c. the Japanese negotiation style
d. the decision making process of the Japanese corporation
e. socializing and ningen kankei or interpersonal relations
f. nonverbal communication and ambiguous expressions
g. how to be polite in business communication

Instructional materials will include:

1. Business Japanese II. Edited by the International Division of Nissan Motor Co. Tokyo: Gloview, 1985.

2. Graham, John L. and Yoshihiro Sano. *Smart Bargaining: Doing Business with the Japanese*. Cambridge, Mass.: Ballinger Publishing, 1984.
3. Hall, Edward T. and Mildred Reed Hall. *Hidden Differences: Doing Business with the Japanese*. Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1987.
4. JETRO. *Nihonjin to Hataraku Ho* (Doing Business in Japan). Japanese/English. Tokyo: Gakuseisha, 1984.
5. *Illustrated "Salaryman" in Japan*. Tokyo: Japan Travel Bureau, 1986.
6. "Taking Your Product into the Japanese Market." 6-part video series. San Francisco: Copeland-Griggs Production.

JPN 446 Business Japanese I is intended to increase proficiency in business communication in Japanese and to develop knowledge of Japanese business and economy. The emphasis is on reading Japanese and English publications on Japanese business, economy, industry, market structure, and so on. Exercises in Japanese will include extensive work on the vocabulary and idiom of Japanese business and economy. Students will be expected to give reports in Japanese on news about Japanese business and economy. The class will be conducted in Japanese. Topics to be covered will include:

a. Japan's postwar economic growth
b. Japanese industry and company groups
c. the Japanese market and distribution system
d. labor force and education system in Japan
e. foreign trade and *shosha* (general trading companies)
f. the business-government relationship

g. financial institutions

h. Japanese consumers and their standards of living

Instructional materials will include:

1. Business Nippon: An Introduction to Japan's Economy for Foreigners. English/Japanese. Tokyo: Hokuseisha, 1987.
2. "The Colonel Comes to Japan." Video. Produced by WGBH Boston. Distributed by Learning Corporation of America, New York.
3. Japan (from the Economist, London). New York: Cambridge University Press, 1983.
4. Japan Handbook: JETRO's Desktop Economic Encyclopedia. Japanese/English. Tokyo: Kodansha, 1985.
5. Japanese Business Glossary. By Mitsubishi Shoji Kohoshitsu. English/Japanese. Tokyo: Toyokeizai Shinpo Sha, 1983.
6. Tainichi Urikomi Sakusen A to Z (Selling to Japan from A to Z). By Ministry of International Trade and Industry. Japanese/English. Tokyo: Gakuseisha, 1985.

Business Nippon (see 1 above) is a collection of the transcripts of "Business Nippon," a 30-minute English-language weekly television program produced by Japan Cable Television, Ltd. The book has the English transcripts accompanied by the Japanese translation; it also contains the titles and brief discriptions of 200 "Business Nippon" video tapes.

I am now developing a Japanese textbook to accompany the 6-part video "Taking Your Product into the Japanese Market" as part of a project funded by the Department of Education under Title VI of Higher Education Act for

International Studies and Foreign Language programs. The 6-part video series follow a fictional American salesman who succeeds in selling his company's product to a Japanese company after months of frustrations and disappointments. The diveo goes a long way toward explaining differences in negotiation styles between the the U.S. and Japan by focusing on the decision making process in a Japanese company. Since the video, narrated in English, is not designed for the language instruction, I decided to make a Japanese textbook to accompany the video. I designed the Japanese textbook in such a way that students can learn scence by scene how the negotiation proceeds and what significant points each scene presents (the textbook is not yet completed; see Appendix I for a sample).

JPN 447 Business Japanese II will provide an overview of the system of organization, managerial style, and personnel relations of the Japanese corporation. The course will also discuss difficulties Japanese companies are facing as they "internationalize" their operations, especially in the area of personnel relations with non-Japanese employees. Exercises in Japanese will foucs on business correspondence and translation of business documents. Students will be expected to learn how to use a Japanese word processing program. The class will be conducted in Japanese. Topics to be covered will include:

a. the organizational structure of a Japanese corporation
b. Japanese-style management
c. employment, wage and promotion
d. building up a network of interpersonal relations
e. management-labor relations
f. working for a Japanese company

g. internationalization of a Japanese corporation

Instructional materials will include:

1. Abegglem, James C. and George Stalk, Jr. Kaisha, the Japanese Corporation. New York: Basic Books, 1986.
2. "Challenging the Deming Prize--TQC in the Service Industry." "Business Nippon" video. Distributed by Japan Cable Television, Tokyo.
3. "Employees Are Not Build in a Day." "Business Nippon" video. Distributed by Japan Cable Television, Tokyo.
4. Keitaro, Hasegawa. Japanese-Style Management. Tokyo: Kodansha International, 1986.
5. Ishida, Hideo. Kokusai Keiei no Ningen Mondai (personnel problems in international management). Tokyo: Keio Tsuchin, 1984.
6. Nihon Kampanii: Rupo Kokkyo o Koeru Kigyo (Japanese companies overseas). Tokyo: Yomiuri Shimbun, 1986.
7. Hitomede Wakaru Saishin Bijinesu no Chishiki Hyakka (new complete guidebook of Japanese business). Tokyo: Shufu-to-Seikatsusha, 1986.

Concluding Remarks

In this paper I defined business Japanese and discussed how and to what extent the culture component should be incorporated into a business Japanese program. Answers to this question depend on what one thinks of such factors as job market, students' needs and characteristics, and institutional resources and constraints. I presented several assumptions and speculations I made when the three business Japanese courses were proposed for the Language and International Trade program. Based on these assumptions I decided to emphasize the culture component of business Japanese to the extent that students study about fifty percent of it in English as homework assignments, which will prepare students for class discussion in Japanese. The reasons are as follows:

1. It is most essential to understand the business culture when dealing with the Japanese.
2. The proficiency level most students may attain in four years suggests that language skills alone will not be very marketable.
3. The lost opportunity to study Japanese will hardly affect students' overall progress in proficiency in Japanese.
4. There is no other course at Eastern Michigan University which focuses entirely on the study of Japanese business culture.

It might turn out that some of my assumptions do not accurately reflect reality. However, this attempt at EMU is only a beginning of the development of business Japanese, and our program will undergo frequent review and revision. I only hope this paper will stimulate discussion on how to develop a business Japanese program.

APPENDIX I

PART III

場面１２　テレックスの波紋

登場人物

大日本技術社　［森脇（もりわさ）副社長］
購買部　鈴木部長
山本課長
小西
木下（きのした）

あらすじ

マクスウェルは大日本の森脇副社長にテレックスで再訪問の意向を伝える。テレックスは森脇から購買部の鈴木部長へ転送される。鈴木部長はテレックスが購買担当の神埼取締役をとび越えて来たことに当惑する。鈴木部長は山本課長に会議の出席メンバーを選ぶよう指示する。山本課長は部下の小西と小西の同期で技術部第二課の小川と技術部第一課の山田課長をメンバーに選ぶ。

単語

1.	テレックス	Telex
2.	波紋（はもん）	ripple, stir, repercussions
3.	再（さい）...	re-
	再訪問（さいほうもん）	revisit
4.	意向（いこう）	intention
5.	転送（てんそう）する	to forward, transmit
6.	とび越（こ）える	jump over, go over (one's head)

7.	当惑（とうわく）する	get embarrassed or perplexed
8.	出席（しゅっせき）	attendance, presence
9.	メンバー	member(s)
10.	選（えら）ぶ	to select, choose
11.	指示（しじ）する	to instruct, direct
12.	部下（ぶか）	subordinate, one's staff
13.	同期（どうき） or 同期生	classmate, peer, those with the same seniority, those who entered the company at the same time
14.	第二課（だいにか）	section #2, the second section

要点

11. 日本の会社と連絡をとる時は、適切なルートを通すことが重要である。 トップを直接知っている場合は別にして、普通は中間管理職や担当部門の責任者をとび越えてアプローチすべきではない。

12. 日本側の交渉チームは　影響をうける各部門の意見が反映されるように選ばれる。

単語

1.	連絡（れんらく）をとる	to contact, get in touch
2.	適切（てきせつ）な	appropriate, proper
3.	ルート	route, channel (of communication, etc)
4.	通（とう）す	pass ～ through
	適切なルートを通す	use a proper channel of communication or contact
5.	直接（ちょくせつ）	directly, in person
6.	場合（ばあい）	case, instance
7.	別（べつ）	a different matter, exception
	～は別にして	with the exception of ～, apart from～

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INTENSIVE LANGUAGE AND CULTURE ORIENTATION PROGRAM FOR JAPAN

by

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and
Dr. Lori A. Taft

University of Pittsburgh
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INTENSIVE LANGUAGE AND CULTURE ORIENTATION PROGRAM FOR JAPAN

Dr. Rebecca J. Setliff and Dr. Lori A. Taft

1. Introduction.

The Language and Culture Institute of the University of Pittsburgh was founded in 1974. Its goal is to assist people of different nations to develop linguistic skills and cultural sensitivity in order to operate effectively in other countries. In the University context, the Institute serves as a coordinating and administrative body, working with other units of the University preparating innovative and finely focused programs. As part of this effort we plan and implement programs on an *ad hoc* basis in a format which ranges from one- to three-day seminars to courses of several weeks' duration.

2. Intensive Language and Culture Program for Japan: History and Rationale.

The program we describe here was originally developed in 1983 on request by the Asia-Pacific Human Resources group of Westinghouse Electric Corporation. As part of a licensing agreement between Westinghouse and Mitsubishi Electric Company, an engineer exchange was begun so that selected engineers from each company could spend a one-year assignment at an appropriate facility in the foreign country. In response to the request, the LCI developed a thirteen-week Intensive Language and Culture Orientation program for these engineers.

The rationale for this program is threefold. First, Westinghouse believes that pre-assignment training will be rather like preventive maintenance. If the engineers receive the orientation it is more likely that they will avoid cultural pitfalls which would prevent them from being effective ambassadors for the company. Second, an orientation program will help to head off that demon "culture shock" which has been shown to interfere with an individual's success abroad. As we know, cultural differences and unreasonable expectations can have a profoundly negative effect on the expatriate's performance. Third, the Language and Culture Institute believes that international understanding must begin with individuals. Thus, we are striving to provide an educational format for learning about other countries and cultures.

By describing the structure of this particular program, we hope to illustrate one way of approaching the general problem of providing training for cross-cultural awareness and sensitivity.

3. Structure of the Program.

The three major components of this Intensive Seminar are program administration, language training, and culture training. We will discuss each in turn.

3.1. Administration.

The program is administered by the Language and Culture Institute. Our administrative staff consists of a Director, an Assistant Director, and a Coordinator of Special Projects. Two major tasks which fall directly under the category of administration are program coordination and budget preparation. The program coordination involves maintaining contact with the participants from beginning to finish of the program, overseeing the daily operations of the teaching staff, coordinating the cultural component activities, "trouble-shooting", and

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serving as liaison between the Institute and the Corporation.

The budget is prepared by the Assistant Director of the Institute. Once prepared, it is circulated among the administrative staff, and after review, submitted to the Corporation for approval. We will discuss the budgeting process in more detail after we have discussed the main training components in the program.

3.2. Language Training.

The language training component is administered by the Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures at the University of Pittsburgh. The primary goal is for the participants to achieve a level of proficiency in Japanese equivalent to that resulting from one year of language instruction in a typical university program. The daily schedule consists of four hours of language instruction plus one hour listening to tapes specially designed for use with the text (E. Jorden, *Beginning Japanese*, Yale University Press, 1963). Three of the four language class hours are spent on oral drill with the Japanese instructors, strictly in Japanese. The fourth hour is with a faculty member from the Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures. This discussion, in English, focuses on language structure and use, and on areas of contrast between the two cultures.

The Japanese instructors are native speakers of Japanese, who are graduate students in Linguistics or East Asian Languages and Literatures. Under the faculty member's supervision, they provide the intensive drill and reinforcement in their native Japanese without recourse to English. The classes are held in the Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures, providing easy and frequent contact with the faculty member involved in the program. This is important, since it allows the students to make specific requests if they wish some part of the program to receive greater emphasis or if they have a problem, academic or otherwise. This location is also convenient since the engineers often see their instructors and other native speakers of Japanese and engage in informal Japanese conversation outside of the classroom. This is a valuable way to practice their newly acquired skills.

3.3. Culture Orientation.

The culture orientation portion of the program is administered by the Language and Culture Institute. The goal of this part of the Intensive Seminar is to help the students develop sensitivity to the customs and philosophies of a new culture. Through these efforts, we hope they can avoid negative evaluation of the culture and can participate with greater understanding. Cultural orientation, therefore, is designed to provide basic facts about everyday life in present-day Japan and to give an awareness of cultural differences which will facilitate a smooth transition into the new society.

To accomplish this goal, the LCI arranges a program of instruction in Japanese culture. Guest lecturers from the business and academic communities of Pittsburgh meet with the students one or two times each week to discuss various aspects of Japanese society in their respective areas of expertise. For example, our lecture series have included speakers from the University of Pittsburgh, Carnegie Mellon University, Duquesne University, The Japan Society, National Steel, and Mitsubishi Electric Company. Some of these discussions focus on the typical routines of Japanese families, thus providing the students with some measure of familiarity with day-to-day living in Japan. Other discussions focus on Japanese history and geography. Still others concern Japanese businesses, both in terms of their historical development and in terms of their present position in the world economy. We usually arrange luncheons or dinners with the speakers so that the engineers can extend the discussion time and bring up issues relevant to their own interests and concerns.

A second part of the cultural orientation consists of films which are shown one or two times per week. These films concern the art, music, theatre, and family life in Japan. The films often provide the impetus for questions which can be directed to the instructors or lecturers. A complete list of the films and their topics is given in Figure 1.

At the conclusion of the thirteen weeks of instruction and orientation, we hold a farewell dinner to honor the participants in the Intensive Seminar. We extend invitations to all who have been involved in the seminar, and we also invite representatives from the Asia-South Pacific Human Resources Division of Westinghouse and from Mitsubishi Electric Company. The engineers are given certificates of completion and they each give a short prepared speech in Japanese. This first experience with speaking publicly in Japanese is deemed by the engineers themselves to be a very valuable experience.

3.4. Budget.

Budgeting for this program is divided into three major areas: personnel costs, administrative costs, and University mandated costs. To give you a clearer idea of the budgeting process, we briefly explain each of these areas, which are outlined in Figure 2.

Under personnel we include instructors for the language component and lecturers for the cultural component. We charge an hourly rate for the language instruction and an honorarium for each of the lecturers. Both of these figures may vary depending on the level of expertise of the individuals involved, and also depending on the currently accepted rates for these services.

Budgeting for administrative costs is a two-step process. First, we calculate the cost of materials, supplies, travel, and meal expenses as appropriate. Next, to determine the charges for the administrative staff, we take 15 per cent of these costs plus the personnel costs. These two steps give us the total administrative cost. For the 13-week engineer exchange program, 15 per cent has proven to be an accurate way to calculate the charges for the administrative staff time.

University mandated costs include fringe benefits, which range from 26.5 per cent to 32 per cent, and indirect costs which may range from 10 per cent to 50 per cent for sponsored programs in a University setting. The entire budgeting process is as follows: two to three months before the program begins we present a tentative budget to Westinghouse for approval. An invoice letter is sent once the program is underway. Occasionally the participants make specific requests which incur additional costs. In such a case we call Westinghouse and, if approval is granted, we write an additional invoice or, if appropriate, the individuals take care of the costs themselves and then submit expense reports directly to the company for reimbursement.

4. Evaluation Process.

In programs such as this, in which the participants move at their own pace and which are designed on an ad hoc basis, evaluation is a difficult task. To assess the value of the orientation and training would mean that we should have some pre- and post-training performance measurement. For the language instruction this is certainly possible; since most of the engineers come to our program with little or no Japanese, improvement is practically guaranteed. In our 1988 program we intend to give a language skills test at the end of the thirteen weeks. We also typically schedule an exit interview before departure so that participants can have the opportunity to discuss their opinions about the program from the pre-assignment point of view. A sampling of the comments we have received during these exit interviews suggests that the engineers find it extremely beneficial to be required to use only Japanese with their instructors, even outside of class, and that in general the staff "creates an environment which is highly conducive to learning". Of course, we must keep in mind that motivation is an important factor in language learning, and that the engineers are generally highly motivated to learn Japanese before their foreign assignment.

There are issues, however, which are not so clearly measurable and which must be discussed after the foreign experience: Did the training help provide a smooth transition between cultures? If so, how? How well were the engineers able to use the language to accomplish routine tasks upon their arrival? Did the training help alleviate the culture shock syndrome? If so, how? Could the same amount of value have been garnered with a shorter program? On the other hand, would a longer program have been much better?

The problems of making such qualitative assessments are well-known to trainers and other Human Resource Development professionals. Among the problems are the following. First, we are dealing with highly subjective responses which are in themselves difficult to measure. Second, we are looking at individuals who differ in many ways, and whose experiences will vary in other ways not affected by their pre-assignment training. Third, it is difficult to demonstrate how the participant's experience might have been different had he not had the training, even if we believe it indeed would have been. Finally, the benefits of training are often not directly measurable in terms of increased productivity, but instead affect performance in more subtle ways.

These factors have conspired to make the evaluation of training programs elusive. Yet, we feel it is essential to begin developing tools which give us a variety of types of information on the success of our language and culture orientation programs. As a first step, we have begun to collect information from our alumni. We developed a questionnaire which we distributed to 20 participants of the engineer exchange program. At this time, we have not received all of the questionnaires back, but the comments thus far have been very positive. Once we have received more information we hope to refine our measurement tool so that we can develop a uniform approach to evaluating all of our orientation programs.

5. Conclusion.

In this brief presentation we have tried to give a glimpse of the major considerations in setting up a language and culture orientation program. Of course, any particular program may have special needs which we have not been able to address through this one case study. For example, many of our programs involve foreign businessmen and their families coming to the U.S. For this type of program, both the language component and the culture component are "in context", and the training need not be limited to classroom experiences and discussion groups. In this case, we often include "field trips" around Pittsburgh, introducing the student to local attractions such as museums, concerts, and parks in Pittsburgh. We often combine such trips with a meal at a restaurant or in an American home, in order to increase opportunities for discussion. Clients who bring their families to Pittsburgh have special needs, which we make every effort to address. This often involves placing the children in schools or day care centers, finding medical care, identifying extracurricular activities for the children. When possible, we try to meet with at least one parent before the arrival of the family, to assess their needs and to pave the way for a successful transition once the family arrives.

The engineer exchange program described here is the longest program we coordinate. Most of our programs run from one day to a few weeks' duration. The challenges of implementing such short-term programs are even greater than what is required for the 13-week program. Typically, we are asked to make a proposal for a program only weeks before it is to begin. We are often faced with the need to hire teachers on a short-term basis and on short notice. Because of our affiliation with the English Language Institute at the University of Pittsburgh, this is usually feasible but may at times be problematic. Often, our staff members will do some or all of the teaching, where it involves English; but this is contingent upon other demands placed on the staff member.

Another problem is that we often do not have a clear idea of the client's language proficiency before his or her arrival. This usually means that the first day of class is spent on language testing, and the instructors must decide within the first day or two which level, and thus what materials, will be best suited for this student. Again, our affiliation with the English Language Institute gives us great flexibility in choosing materials tailored to the client's needs.

Still another administrative concern for short-term programs is classroom space. These short, intensive programs are difficult to house because University space is at a premium and one must request it far in advance. However, the advantage to being associated with the University is that we have the potential for running several programs at once, by making use of a variety of classroom settings when they are available.

Budgeting for these short programs, as with the other programs, involves figuring a cost for the administrative staff. As noted above, we calculate 15 per cent of the personnel and administrative costs, and this is our charage for the non-teaching staff time. For shorter programs, this may not be an accurate figure, since short programs often require as much coordination as longer programs. We are currently examining this issue to determine a more accurate formula for our shorter programs.

Thus, each program presents its own set of challenges and complications. Nonetheless, we have developed a general structure for program planning and budget development which we can apply to all programs, as a first step. Even though we have not yet established clear evaluation measures for our programs, one visible sign of our success is the continued corporate interest in the language and culture orientation programs we provide.

As participants at this conference, we all recognize that the nations and people of the world must rely on one another more and more. Since the inception of the Language and Culture Institute more than ten years ago, we have worked to help people understand this reliance. One of the first steps is the development of cross-cultural sensitivity. We hope that we have contributed to the body of knowledge that will help establish and promote the transition from an ethnocentric attitude to a more global one.

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Film:	**Topic:**
Tokyo: The World's Safest City	Tokyo as a city of little crime–why this is so.
Full Moon Lunch	A Japanese family and its business
The National Treasures of Japan	A portrayal of the people who preserve the cultural roots of Japan
Contemporary Japanese Women: A Closer Look	The changing roles of women in contemporary Japanese society
Shinto	A look at the place of religion on Japan
Noh Drama	A portrayal of excerpts from Noh plays
Bunraku	The place of the theatre in Japanese society
Kyoto	One family's life in Japan with particular emphasis on older people
Rashomon (feature length)	A classic film portraying four different perspectives of one incident
Yojimbo (feature length)	A classic film portraying a Samurai's influence in a troubled town
Tokyo Story	A close look at the relationships in a Japanese family

Figure 1. Films Used in Culture Training Component.

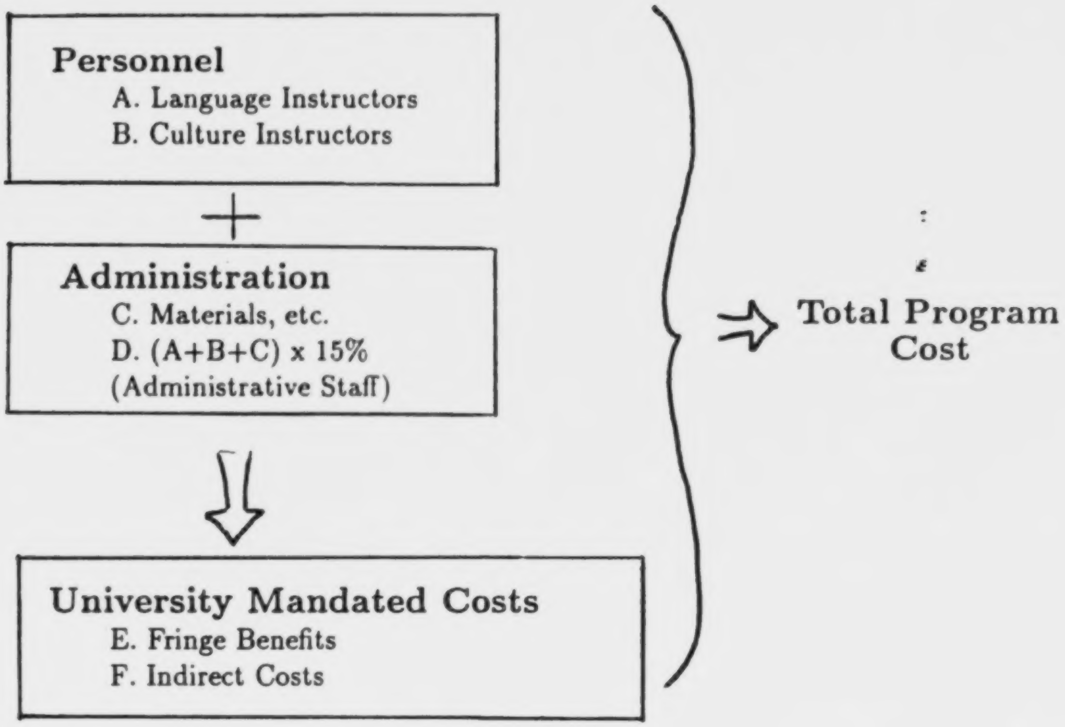
Personnel
A. Language Instructors
B. Culture Instructors
+
Administration
C. Materials, etc.
D. (A+B+C) x 15%
(Administrative Staff)
University Mandated Costs
E. Fringe Benefits
F. Indirect Costs
Total Program Cost

Figure 2. Budgeting Process for Intensive Seminar on Japan.

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CONVERSATIONAL CHINESE FOR BUSINESS PEOPLE: A CASE HISTORY

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Conversational Chinese for Business People: A Case History

by Thelma S. Chow

This paper is a description of special course offerings in the Chinese language provided at Lynchburg College to the local business community. The courses were organized to meet the needs of people who are already active members of the business community and who are involved in trade relations with China or Taiwan or who anticipate developing such relationships. The classes were offered as part of the Piedmont International Business Program which was funded by a Title VI Grant from the U.S. Department of Education for a two year period beginning August, 1986.

Lynchburg College, a private, co-educational, liberal arts college located in the city of Lynchburg, Virginia, has an enrollment of 2,000 students. In an era of declining college enrollments, Lynchburg College has enjoyed a slight increase in enrollment. Forty percent of the students at Lynchburg College are non-traditional (adult) students and graduate students who are primarily from the Greater Lynchburg Community. In addition to the various baccalaureate degrees, Lynchburg College also offers graduate degrees through the School of Business and the School of Education.

The city of Lynchburg is located in the scenic Central Virginia area. The immediate metropolitan area around Lynchburg, which is the area served by the classes described here, has a population of only 150,000. The region including and surrounding this area is heavily dependent on manufacturing for employment: 38% of the jobs were in manufacturing in the 1980's. A number of firms, both large and small, in the area are engaged in international trade; this includes trade with Taiwan and China. Products exported from the region include apparel, furniture, paper products, nuclear fuel, nuclear products and services, rubber products, footwear, special industrial machinery, fabric, floor coverings, pharmeceuticals, cosmetics, pipe fittings, electronic equipment, and radio communications equipment. Some companies indicate that exports account for as much as 40% of their total sales.

One of the stated goals of the Piedmont International Business Program which was funded by the Title VI grant was to offer opportunities to area business people for instruction, including language instruction. There are several colleges in the area (Lynchburg College among them) which offer courses for college credit in various Indo-European languages; one college also offers Japanese and Russian. None of the colleges were offering Chinese in 1986 when Lynchburg College began its program. To my knowledge, none of the language classes offered in the area were designed for non-college students. Surveys conducted in 1986 indicated that several local companies would like to see language classes offered for business people: specifically Spanish, French, Chinese and Japanese.

In August, 1986 Lynchburg College offered me a contract to teach Mandarin Chinese under the Title VI grant. The original idea of those who wrote the grant had been to combine a regular class of college students studying for college credit with interested business people. However, there was insufficient time for publicity before the opening of the fall semester. Furthermore, it was my opinion that in order to attract business people we needed to offer something especially tailored to their needs and completely separate from the college credit course which should be designed primarily for full-time college students. The need for a separate course is important from the instructor's viewpoint as well as from the standpoint of the students. It is necessary to accommodate differences in scheduling needs, attendance and course requirements, vocabulary and course content, learning styles and pace of progress.

The traditional approach in the American college is to program material so that students must cover a set content in a specified number of weeks. The learning experience is packaged to fit the needs of institutional responsibility. Although this may be correct for some purposes it is not necessarily appropriate for all learning situations. Having learned Chinese myself with private tutors and without earning college credit and having been a tutor before being a college professor, it is easy for me to think in terms other than the traditional college oriented approach.

My concept for a class for business people at Lynchburg College was to offer something to those individuals who are already established in the business world, who are not able to engage in full-time or intensive language study, but who find their business activities bringing them into contact with people who speak Chinese. The students I visualized would not be working toward a goal of complete mastery and fluency, but being realistic about their current situations would primarily want to gain exposure to the language to increase their understanding of the country with which they are doing business (or hope to do business), thereby enhancing their business relationships and acumen. There is, of course, a place for programs to meet the needs of people preparing to embark on a career in international business who want to achieve fluency and mastery in Chinese, but this is not the constituency which I was considering in this project.

The way the course came into existence would doubtless scandalize any self-respecting college registrar. Our academic dean was anxious to see a unique opportunity made available to the business community and was as flexible as possible. He essentially gave me a free hand in organizing the course -- length, fees, content, etc. From the beginning I was definite that the course would not be for credit; there would be no option of taking it for credit. It was to be entirely separate from the course in Chinese which we offer for credit.

Courses offered subsequently by the Piedmont International Business Program in French and Spanish have been offered as intensive courses which may be taken for college credit. They were designed to include several weeks of study abroad. Although these courses were advertised within the business community no one from that sector has enrolled. These courses were fundamentally different from the Chinese class in that they were essentially college credit courses, they were designed to be intensive and to attract full-time college students as well as business people.

We will consider the Chinese class in three phases. The first is the eight week session offered in Fall, 1986 with an enrollment of 11 students. The second phase is the two 8 week sessions offered winter and spring, 1987 with enrollments of four and three students respectively. The third phase is the class being offered 1987-88 in two 12 week sessions with an enrollment of three students who have continued from the previous year.

Phase One

In late September, 1986, after making some personal contacts in the business community to ascertain if there was sufficient and specific interest, we decided to offer an introductory class in conversational Chinese which would meet 3 hours each week for a period of 8 weeks. Special publicity was arranged through the local newspaper, the publication of the adult education program of Lynchburg College, and the Piedmont World Trade Council which is an organization of local business people. The response was very encouraging; our final enrollment was 11 students. After talking with several prospective students and soliciting their opinions, class meetings were scheduled as follows: 12:00-1:00 p.m. Mondays and Fridays, 7:30-8:30 p.m. Wednesdays. The class met from October 20 - December 17, 1986. The enrollment fee was $100. Such a low fee was possible only because of the support of the Title VI grant. The adult education program and our registrar wanted to offer Continuing Education Units. This was entirely immaterial to the students, however, and we have not continued the practice this year.

The eleven students who were enrolled (8 men and 3 women) represented six different companies engaged in international trade. Five of these companies were already trading with Taiwan; one of them has also made sales to China; another is now buying from China. The sixth company was negotiating for sales or a joint venture in China. The products exported or imported by these companies are precision and balancing equipment, surgical sutures, cosmetics, footwear, electronic equipment, sterile solutions and feminine hygiene products.

The students can be identified as follows: 4 Chief Executive Officers, 2 Vice-Presidents, a Merchandise Manager, an Export Manager, a Sales Manager, the wife of one of the CEO's; the other student owns a local business which would not be a candidate for international trade, but she has traveled in China and took the class for personal satisfaction.

It is obviously not necessary to know Chinese in order to conduct trade with China or Taiwan. At least half of the students in the class do travel to Taiwan regularly and several have been to China for business purposes. No one in these companies is fluent in Chinese. These countries have been quick to train interpreters for English speaking business people. Hence, lack of facility in Chinese was not seen by the students as an absolute impediment to trade relations, but rather the understanding of Chinese is seen as an asset which can enhance trade relations.

As an instructor considering her students several conclusions were evident:

1. Most of the students carried heavy business responsibilities and were limited in terms of the amount of time they could devote to study.
2. With one possible exception, the students were over forty and thus well above the age considered appropriate for language learning.

3. There was a wide range of interests, learning capabilities, and business involvements represented.

My goals were necessarily simple: to help students gain some knowledge of the structure of the language (sound and grammar), acquire a small vocabulary, memorize some useful phrases, and gain some appreciation of cultural nuances through the language.

Several of the students are fluent in two or three Indo-European languages besides English; for two students English was not the first language. Thus, some of the students had had experience learning second and third languages. However, because Chinese is very different from the Indo-European languages in both grammatical and sound systems and because there are no cognates as is the case with Indo-European languages, it is not possible to acquire anything like a business vocabulary in a short course of this kind. The Chinese writing system creates additional complications for the beginning student.

There were frequent absences due to business related travel, although absence for other reasons was not a problem. Nevertheless, expectations of progress had to be adjusted.

Appendix A gives a brief week by week description of the first eight week session, revised to show what we actually covered.

The texts purchased by the students are both from Beijing Language Institute: Practical Chinese Reader I published in 1981 by the Commercial Press in China and New Chinese 300 distributed in the U.S. by Cheng & Tsui Company in Boston. Both texts have accompanying audio tapes which were made available to the students. Both texts use the pinyin system of romanization.

To my knowledge, there is no published text which is appropriate for a class of this kind. Consequently, a considerable amount of adaptation and creativity is required on the part of the teacher. The Practical Reader provides a manageable, basic introduction to the language; it is programmed for mastery of the written as well as the oral language. The vocabulary was chosen for young, full-time students. Chinese 300 provides situationally oriented vocabulary which is somewhat more useful to the adult student; nevertheless, it is also primarily intended to meet the vocabulary needs of the traditional student. It is not programmed as a first and complete introduction to the language.

My approach to learning vocabulary was to take a situation and work with vocabulary which would be required for that context, using the conversations in the texts as a starting point. It was frequently necessary to prepare supplementary materials: handouts and oral exercises to be used in class.

My teaching is context oriented rather than translation oriented. We learn what a Chinese person might say in a given situation rather than trying to translate what an American might say. Because the thought patterns of adult students are well established, there are stumbling blocks in this approach.

Class time was used primarily as follows: pronunciation drills, pattern sentence drills, role play conversations, explanations about the language and its use. At such an elementary level it is seldom necessary to use class time for grammar discussions. Culture was not taught as a separate entity. Cultural nuances are often revealed through language choice and use; comments and explanations were offered naturally in the course of studying the language.

The class could be criticized as being superficial in terms of solid academic study. However, as one student who has continued studying this year expressed it, "For the majority of the people in the class who did not plan to go beyond the introductory level, there was no other way to teach it." The class was simply an attempt to demystify the language and culture. Evaluations at the end of the class indicated that the students felt the class was worthwhile and that they had benefited.

One CEO who travels to China summed it up neatly, "The class was psychological for me. It helped a lot. The language no longer seems mysterious and unknowable. I feel more comfortable now even though I don't understand."

Phase Two

In January, 1987 we offered a second 8 week session for four of the students who wanted to continue studying. At the request of the students, the Wednesday evening class was increased to two hours so that we had a total of four hours of class time each week. Three of the students then chose to continue for another 8 weeks in the spring.

We continued working with the same texts throughout the year, reviewing some of the material from the first session and then going on to build additional vocabulary. We worked with situations such as shopping, asking for directions or addresses, eating in a restaurant, seeing a movie. Again, it was necessary to develop supplementary drills and exercises. I tried to adjust and develop materials appropriate to the needs and activities of the students. If I were to repeat a class at this level, I would definitely prepare even more material for drill and practice.

Two of the students were interested in learning characters, so we spent a limited amount of class time in the spring working with the written language. One of the students has continued working with the characters on his own and is now able to read several hundred characters.

With such a small class, individual attention and practice is possible. Problems are also more easily discovered. It is important to note that these students who have continued studying are not necessarily always learning the same things. Their areas of skill in learning language are different: one is good at the written language, another at pronunciation, another at incorporating grammar patterns. They remember different things in the vocabulary. They are under no pressure to learn the same things in the same order or at the same rate. Obviously, they are learning some of the same things or we could not function as a class. However, there is a wide range of capabilities which can be accommodated in a class which is conducted with this kind of flexibility. The students are not learning for tests. It should be emphasized that "flexibility" is not a euphemism for not learning.

Phase Three

In August and September, 1987 we advertised for a new introductory level class. However, there was little interest expressed and no one followed through to register for the class.

Since there were three students from the previous classes who wanted to continue studying, we offered a class for them. Two of these students had participated in all three of the 8 week sessions in 1986 - 87; the other one had attended only the first class. Due to his heavy travel schedule he was not able to attend class in the winter and spring, but had studied and worked with tapes on his own. He was able to rejoin the other two students with little difficulty.

This class is being conducted in two 12 week sessions with four hours of class time each week: Monday and Friday noons and 6:00 - 8:00 on Wednesday evenings. Tuition is $175 for each 12 week session.

The students can be identified as follows: the president and owner of a small company which supplies electronic components and trades with Taiwan, the Export Manager for a local company which manufactures feminine hygiene products and exports to Asia but not yet to China, the wife of the CEO of a German owned company which sells precision balancing equipment to China.

In the Fall we spent several weeks reviewing. We have continued to use Chinese 300 although less than half of our work is actually from the text. There is very little useable exercise material in the text to help students master the vocabulary and constructions which are introduced in the lesson conversations. I have prepared a considerable amount of material for oral use in class and for handouts. Some of the situations for which we have learned vocabulary are taking trips, changing money, feeling ill, getting a room in a hotel, visiting a post office, talking about the weather. We use the vocabulary from the text to build conversations about the students' experiences.

Class time is spent in a variety of ways: doing role play conversations, practicing real life conversations, learning sentence patterns, occasional pronunciation drill, doing grammar exercises and discussing grammar problems. This session for the first time we are also translating sentences from Chinese to English and vice versa. Since Chinese is a concept based language rather than a phonetic based language, it is helpful to the student who is building a vocabulary to understand the written language. As an aid to understanding the language, I have brought in character in a limited way this session (spring, 1988). As mentioned above, one student has tried to learn some character on his own. The other students are not actually memorizing the characters.

Problem areas in pronunciation continue to be a few vowels, the retroflex sounds, but primarily the tones. As the students increase their vocabularies, problems related to the nauture of the Chinese sound system become more pronounced. The sound system is a closed one and tone is a phoneme. From the kinds of difficulties evident in aural comprehension it is clear that the students have not psychologically incorporated tone as one of the phonemes in the system. Generally, they can hear and repeat the tonal patterns but when listening to real speech they confuse words which would be totally different if they were interpreting tone as a phoneme.

The use of Chinese verbs and verb construction is problematic for students who have lived all their lives -- more than 40 years in this case -- in a world where verbs must show tense. For Indo-European languages, tense is an imperative for main verbs in sentences or clauses. This is a non-issue in Chinese. Of course, there are many ways to express time relationships, tense, and other valid concepts in Chinese, but it is not through a system of scheduled conjugations. Differences in overlap of meaning for certain terms between languages and differences in word order present special problems for the student whose only languageof fluency is English.

It is occasionally necessary to comment on differences of language between Taiwan and China. Although the language is the same, there are a few lexical differences. The standard for pronunciation is the same but in reality many differences in accent exist. This is true between regions in China as well as between China and Taiwan. Some of these lexical and accent differences can be compared to differences between Castillian Spanish and South American Spanish.

The class this year has been conducted almost as a tutorial with the students deciding when they are ready to go to new material. They also make suggestions as to which kinds of exercises or activities they find most helpful, if they want to review, etc.

Again, the only problem with absences has been when students have been out of town. A kind of camaraderie and loyalty has developed within the group. We look forward to the class hour because we enjoy the company as well as because of the academic side of it. I have thoroughly enjoyed working with these students in spite of the difficulties due to lack of study time, the age of the students, no adequate published text, etc. One evening when one of the students was unexpectedly detained at the office and arrived late for class, I said, "It's hard to work eight to ten hours at the office and then have to come here and work for another two hours on Chinese." "Oh, no," he responded, "This is pure pleasure." These students are studying for direct reasons, not to meet requirements. They are also motivated by visits to Taiwan and China.

Conclusions

My original expectations for student progress were higher than was realistic. I have learned to adjust my expectations to what is possible for the participants in their situations. One of the hallmarks of these classes has been flexibility in every area. If we were locked into or concurrent with a credit course, it would not be possible to operate with the flexibility which has been necessary for this constituency. The classes have been paced by the students; this is not and cannot be the way it is in college level classes taken for credit.

Although the students have not progressed to a stage of easy fluency and progress is often slow, they have learned a great deal. And the teacher has had a wonderful time!

I am convinced that there are some people in the business world who can benefit from this approach to studying language. There will probably not be many individuals in any given location at the same time, however. Because of the unique problems involved in teaching this constituency, a teacher also needs to be able to take a unique approach. There may be other vehicles than colleges for offering this kind of learning experience, but in this instance doing it through the offices of Lynchburg College has worked well.

One of the fortunate things which has happened in the particular situation described in this paper is something which every good teacher hopes for: the lucky combination of people who want to learn what she has to teach being in the right place at the right time. Expressed in a Chinese concept, "It can happen, but it cannot be sought."

Appendix A

Course Description: Chinese for Business People 1986-87

Chinese for Business People is a special language course organized to meet the needs of people who are already active members of the business community and who are involved in trade relations with the Peoples' Republic of China and/or Taiwan or who anticipate developing such relationships. The course offers no credit and is rather flexible in the sense that it is up to the individual student as to how much of the material he/she actually masters. Audio-tape material is available to supplement the oral work in the classroom and is used at the initiative of the student.

In 1986-87 the course was offered in three sessions of 8 weeks each. The first session met for 3 hours per week: two noon hours and one evening. The second and third sessions met for four hours each week. This increase in meeting time was at the request of the students. We extended the evening session to two hours.

Following is a fairly detailed outline of material covered in the first session.

Week 1: Introduction to pin-yin system of romanization and the sound system of Mandarin. Introduction of simple vocabulary for greetings, pronouns, and titles. Practical Chinese Reader, Lessons 1 and 2.

Week 2: Introduction to the method of character writing. Continued drill with tones and other aspects of the sound system. Talking about names, introductions, family members. Interrogative forms. Practical Reader, Lessons 3 & 4 and Chinese 300, Lessons 1 & 2.

Week 3: Continued specific pronunciation drills. Names of countries, interrogative pronouns, question forms, simple sentences. Practical Reader, Lessons 5 - 7.

Week 4: Drill on difficult sounds and tones. Polite conversation, numbers, places. Practical Reader, Lessons 8 & 9 and Chinese 300, Lesson 3.

Week 5: Telling time, numbers over 10. Practical Reader, Lesson 9 & 10 and Chinese 300, Lesson 6.

Week 6: Working with time words, dates, telling time, working with numbers. Practical Reader, Lesson 11 and Chinese 300, Lesson 5.

Week 7: Telling time, telephone numbers, review of dates. Practical Reader, Lessons 11 & 12.

Week 8: Buying things, money terms, talking about languages. Use of measure words. Practical Reader, Lesson 12 and Chinese 300, Lesson 6.

LANGUAGE TRAINING IN MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS OPERATING IN TAIWAN: CURRENT ISSUES AND A SUGGESTED LANGUAGE TRAINING PROGRAM

by

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Language Training in MNCs Operating in Taiwan: Current Issues and a Suggested Language Training Program

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Introduction

As international business is moving in the direction of the Pacific Basin, Taiwan has become one of the most popular and prosperous nations to attract foreign investments and international trade. With the increasing of international activities, the amount of cross-cultural contact also increases. Successful adaptation to the new culture is essential for an employee's overseas assignment to be considered successful. If the employee does not adapt adequately to the culture of the host country, it will detract from his or her job-performance; inadequate adaptation might well lead to an unsatisfying expatriate experience overall, and to the waste of company resources.

Although the attention has been increasingly paid to the role of cultural training since 1970, there still exists lack of empirical studies on either culture or language training. A survey study (Waxman, 1977) conducted to determine the extent and the type of language and cultural training for expatriate managers from 180 multinational corporations (MNCs) revealed that only 20% MNCs require their overseas employees to learn the host country's languages, and only 24% of the companies offered pre-departure orientation on language and culture.

According to Babcock and Du-Babcock (1986 & 1987), MNCs in Taiwan operate a very careful hiring system. As a condition of employment, Chinese employees must possess a basic proficiency in written and spoken English. Meetings are always conducted in English when English speaking expatriates are present. Local Chinese personnel with high English proficiency serve as a "bridge" between expatriates and the non-exempt personnel with no or little second language (English) competences. Another common strategy is that most MNCs create their "little America" in the country where expatriates can get together and entertain themselves within a "compound." For example, an American club, located on the outskirts of Taipei City, is a place where expatriates can meet their friends who speak the same languages. With the short-term consulting assignment, this may solve the communication problems, but not for long-term overseas assignment, especially for manafacturing firms.

According to our research in 14 MNCs in Taiwan, most expatriates agree that language training is indespensible for both expatriates and local Chinese managers. However, language and cultural training is still not very popular. Our research shows that only four out of 14 copmpanies provide or provided language training to the local Chinese personnel or individualized instruction to the expatriates. Among the four, only one company provides more systematic training, such as logical thinking and technical report writing for local Chinese personnel to learn how to communicate in a Western way, and an individualized instruction for foreign expatriates to learn Chinese. Most foreign expatriates stated that it is difficult to find a training program that meet their needs.

Developing effective language and culture training program revolves around the following issues: (a) whether to use a custom-tailored or standardized program, (b) whether to emphasize general language or company language, (c) whether to emphasize on the written or oral language or both, (d) what teaching methodologies to use, and (e) when to schedule the program.

Custom-tailored or standardized program. Except for cost, a custom-tailored program has significant advantages. However, with the costly expenses for a custom-tailored program, MNCs send Chinese employees to learn English in the evenings at private language institutions. This type of instruction certainly may help personnel improve their English competence, but it does not have much to do with task-related functions. Consequently, such a standardized program may not meet all of the needs of the MNCs. A custom-tailored program may be more beneficial. For example, an engineering department can have engineering English; whereas, the office secretaries can have secretarial English. The customer-tailored program can be more task-related and consequently, more potentially beneficial.

General language or company language. The content may vary because of different job functions and different proficiency level of Chinese personnel. For secretaries of expatriate managers, learning general language is very important. Their knowledge of English needs to be broad enough to be able to communicate and report relevant information to the foreign expatriates. The content can be office operation-related, company product-related, and legal systems. Low-level local Chinese engineers think that knowing company language is very important in commmunicating with foreign expatriates. Mid-to-upper level Chinese personnel, usually possessing a good command of English, think that learning general language is more important. They want to be able to use the language in the social context.

The emphasis on the written or oral, or both. The emphasis placed on either writen or oral language vary according to job function and type of company. For example, in a high-tech manafacturing firm, being able to write technical reports and discuss projects with overseas colleagues on the phone are important. In this connection, the program should emphasize both written and oral communication. As for a locally-run civil engineering joint-venture, it may require more technical report writing; whereas, for secretaries in general, the stress should be on oral communication because previous educational experiences have provided them with written English skills but not with oral communication competence.

Teaching methodology. Teaching methodologies is one of the primary difficulties that cause ineffective English language teaching in Taiwan. The theories of teaching methodology has been more advanced than its application in the classroom settings. Most teachers pay more attention to "teacher talk" or "parrot-like practice." If language instruction is to have an maximum impact on the language proficiency of students, teaching language should emphasize effective classroom activities to develop communicative competence. The teaching methodology employed in Taiwan are very conventional. These conventional approaches empnasize grammatical discrete points or non-meaningful pattern practices. Such modern approaches as Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response, or Natural Approach are being taught at the National Kaohsiung Teachers' College, a teacher training institution, but have not filtered down to the average classrooms. In addition, one example of a private language institute using modern teaching approaches effectively is the Cambridge Foreign Language Center in Tainan. In teaching, these approaches or methods aim at developing a functional ability in the use of language rather than developing the mastery of a single grammatical or linguistic skills. With English education in Taiwan, most students possess a fair command of English in reading comprehension and basic writing, but not oral and aural skills. To design a training program, attention should be paid to (a) developing students' oral/aural skill levels, (b) creating situational information about language use, and (c) developing communication skills to communicate effectively.

Scheduling the Program. The last issue has to do with scheduling; that is, whether to have intensive sessions scheduled over a short period of time or shorter sessions over an extended period of time, and should intensive sessions be alternated with extended sessions? Timing for local Chinese personnel is not a major problem. Most MNCs provide English programs either before or after work. Although such an arrangement may cause a little inconvenience of Chinese personnel, yet, these personnel considered it a good opportunity to improve their command of English without paying their own expenses. Language classes usually are held twice a week. Language and cultural training for the expatriate managers may be a problem, because of the new assignment and new environment. These expatriates need to emerge themselves into a new working environment. They may feel overwhelmed if they have to make extra efforts to learn a new language. The suggestion is that an intensive predeparture general cross-cultural and laguage training may be helpful. Afterward, an individualized or group instruction class can be provided to meet the needs and pace of the individual expatriates.

Suggested Language Program

A language training model should be aimed at (a) developing the English proficiency of Chinese personnel, and (b) enriching the foreign expatriates' Chinese cultural understanding and developing their basic Chinese language competencies. In the following section, suggested language training programs are outlined for both Chinese personnel and for expatriate personnel.

Training program for Chinese Personnel. Language training for Chinese personnel should focus on (a) building communuicative competence, (b) developing the oral language skills (listening and speaking), (c) improving oral proficiency of those Chinese personnel with low-to-intermediate levels of oral proficiency, (d) teaching English for special purpose, and (e) integrating cultural trianing and day-to-day life into language training.

(a) building communicative competence. To learn a language is to learn how to communicate (Wilkins, 1980). According to our research, developing social linguistic competence and strategic competence are more essential for Chinese personnel in improving their second language competence, rather than merely gaining a good command of grammatical competence. The use of language for local Chinese personnel is to comprehend the receiving message and to communicate effectively with expatriate managers by sending a clear and comprehensible message. Thus, language training should be focused on the use of language.

(b) developing oral communication skills (listening and speaking) Of the four language skills, listening and speaking are the most essential skills which need to be developed and improved. With English education in Taiwan, most Chinese possess a good command of English in reading and grammar, but not in listening and speaking. These two skills require immediate response in order to improve conversational ability . There is no time for Chinese individuals to consult the dictionary or other references as would be the case in written communication.. Listening skill is one of the language skills is neglected the most. Without comprehending the receiving message, communication between the sender and receiver cannot be achieved, and misinterpretation will occur, especially in a "high context culture" such as Taiwan.

Chinese are "good listeners" in many situations-- they tend to be polite and do not interupt. Does that mean they understand the received message? No! Absolutely not. Knodding the head may well meanthat "Yes, I heard what you have said, but it does not necessarily mean that yes, I understand." To a Chinese individual, showing puzzlement or asking questions may represent loosing face. Many Chinese individuals can sit and receive the information or instructions for what may seem to be an extraordinary length of time (in the perception of a Westerner) without any verbal response. As a good communicator, one should be alert enough to judge whether people really understand what you said and that they understand what you want them to do, rather than smiling and knodding their heads. During a meeting, an expatriate superior can be "very happy." It may seem that the subordinates understand. However, some time later, a superior may get puzzled and started questioning himself or herself, " Why do the subordinates not do as I said? Didn't they agree with what I said." Developing a good listening comprehension skill is very important. In addition, to assure that Chinese subordinates understand the intended message, it is suggested that expatriate managers summarize the conclusions and key points, and ask for their opinions. An excellent rule of thumb for expatriate managers is to repeat the key points to the second language speakers. In one interview, an expatriate manager stated, " I sometimes do not understand my subordinates. I thought we agreed upon everything on the project, but they seem never do what I instructed.. Don't the subordinates like my ideas?" The likelyhood is that they do, but the cultural differences and language defficiencies further ccomplicate the communication problem. According to our research (Babcock & Du-Babcock, 1986 & 1987) local Chinese personnel tend not to ask for clarification because of being afraid of losing face. Thus, these

Chinese subordinates have the intention of carrying out instructions, but they cannot carry out instruction they do not completely understand.

As for the oral skill, English speakers can feel puzzled and uncomfortable about their subordinates. An expatriate gave an example: "I had broken my leg and came to the office with my leg is a caste. My subordinate asked me, 'What's wrong with you?' Doesn't the person know that my leg was broken?" With this example, it is not language ability that caused the problem, but rather a different way of using language. Effective communication between two individuals not only has to do with language ability, it also has to do with how to use English. That is, Chinese individuals need to know what subjects and expressions are sensitive areas for Westerners. Chinese individuals need to learn to communicate to Westerners in socially effective ways. To improve the oral language skill of Chinese individuals, teaching activities need to be focused on how to communicate appropriately with Westerners, such as how to give compliment, how to refuse or disagree, how to argue and so on.

(c) improving oral proficiency of those Chinese personnel with low-to-intermediate levels of oral proficiency. Most low level Chinese personnel possess a lower level of oral English proficiency than those at higher organizational levels. With lower levels of English proficiency, these individuals depend on their colleagues with higher levels English competence to communicate with expatriate managers. For example, in meetings, expatriate managers may need to ask other Chinese personnel to explain or translate the ideas or instructions to these Chinese individuals. This slows down the communication process, and, the Chinese personnel may perceive that they are losing face. With limited proficiency, Chinese individuals are necessarily forced into a passive receiving condition in meetings although they may have excellent ideas. Improving oral proficiency of these Chinese personnel is essential if they are able to contribute their ideas directly to expatriate managers.

(d) integrating language training into job function (English for special purposes). With the basic command of grammatical competence, most Chinese personnel can handle internal company memos. However, writing of technical project reports, internal progress reports to foreign expatriates or division heads, and quarterly progress reports to the headquarters may create a communication problem. Writing is one way of reflecting logical thinking. To Americans, the thinking process tends to be linear. The writing process starts with the topic sentence, then sentences to support ideas, and then the conclusion. For Chinese, thinking may be a "spatial" process. With the different way of logical thinking between Chinese and "Westerners" misinterpretation may occur. Thus, a language course should tackle the task of writing technical reports and progress reports to overseas headquarters. For example, a course for engineers should focus on engineering report writing and formating; whereas, for those office staff, the emphasis should be on minutes, office operation and monthly reports to the headquarters. In import-export companies, the stress should be on English business correspondence.

(e) integrating cultural training into language training. Language reflects culture; they cannot be separate. Learning culture is not just a one-way process of learning about Western culture. It should be a two-way process. It is necessary for Chinese personnel to understand their own "cultural baggage." Each individual carries with him or her a set of expectations and behaviors which are based on his or her own socialization. It is important that Chinese learn to anticipate behaviors derived from values which are different from their own by becoming aware of their own values and becoming familiar with the values and customs of the expatriate personnel.

Suggested Training for Foreign Expatriates

The content of the training program for expatriate managers should focus on both the language and culture of the host country (Taiwan). Rather than using standardized teaching materials, the instructor can achieve much better results by using materials that are tailored to the expatriate manager and not to the traditional language student.

Consequently, the material should emphasize developing communicative competence and deemphasize grammatical construction and rules of the language. At the beginning level, the materials should focus on basic general conversation; and at the intermediate and advanced levels, the materials should emphasize company specific and technical language. Ideally, the materials should center around carrying out an activity that would be encountered in the host country. For example, one of the authors (Du-Babcock) has developed specific materials which integrate language and culture learning; among other subjects, the materials include: (a) making an initial phone call early in a business negotiation, (b) making a purchase at a store, (c) negotiating a business agreement, (d) celebrating the signing of a joint-venture agreement at a business banquet, (e) attending a social event, (f) making an approintment to meet a friend, and (g) getting a table and ordering dinner at a Chinese restaurant. By discussing and illustrating the socual nuances that surround the above mentioned situations, the instruction can integrate the cultural awareness along with the language training. Language and cultural training are integrated into a total educational package and reinforce one to create a synergestic learning effort.

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GENRE AND FUNCTION IN THE ITALIAN BUSINESS LETTER

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Introduction

This paper examines the use of openings, summational closings and closures in the Italian business letter. It then compares and contrasts the Italian business writing practices with the function of standard U.S. letter openings, summational closings and closures.

Contrasting the function of U.S. letter parts to those in the Italian letter is akin to comparing the proverbial apples and oranges if examined directly. It is, however, the hope that such a contrast might bring into clearer focus the role of culture in business communication conducted internationally.

Part I: The Italian Letter

This study argues that the Italian business letter should be studied in a functional intra-cultural perspective where its meaning creates social reality and maintains that same reality. To support this thesis cultural idioms and genre markers in the openings and closings of the letter are identified as requiring explicit understanding by students of international commerce and students of Italian studying the genre. In a series of examples presented earlier (Association of American Business Conference, Kansas City 1987) I identified closings of the Italian letter were identified as including (1) a summation that re-iterates the tone or attitude of the text and (2) a closure that includes stylistic features like expressions of politeness and honorifics. Summation and closure apply when the letter is of "greater importance" and complexity; closure alone applies when the letter involves routine communications or transactions (Manuale Di Corrispondenza Commerciale 56). Thus, while summation is reduced in some contexts or non-existent, closure rarely is. Openings, like closings, are variable given addressees and purpose.

To support these findings, this paper reviews and classifies a variety of Italian letters by type: (1) letters between a home office and branches (2) letters between a firm and its outside customers (3) internal letters regarding matters of human resources e.g., maternity leave, leaves of absence, etc. (Corrispondenza Commerciale Italiana 3-201) Based on a sample of textbooks and manuals used in Italian business classes in the U.S., the study concludes that (1) summations and closures are never arbitrary but rather genre-specific formulae that convey both social and cultural meaning, (2) summations and closures are often realized in highly elaborate syntax or elaborate code (Class, Codes, and Control: Applied Studies Towards a Sociology of Language 253) that is often non-translatable in a literal sense, and (3) summations and closures are context-specific given the type of letter and the interpersonal relationship that exists between receiver and sender. In short, it is argued that the Italian business letter should be approached both intra-and-inter-culturally at the level of genre with a delineation of its obligatory and optional properties as is the case in genre studies ("The Structure of the Nursery Tale: An Essay in Text Typology" 95-114) and that it should be analyzed in a social-cultural context just as instances of individual semantic choice have been studied in register varieties (Language as Social Semiotic: The Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning 223) and in translation theory and practice (24 Centuries of Language Teaching 9-34) as well as in the social context of speech acts in second language learning (Disclosure Analysis in Second Language Research 78).

SUMMATION-CONCLUSION

The summation-conclusion or la conclusione of the Italian business letter is formulaic and distinct from the linguistic closure of il commiato or simple end. Summation-conclusion consists of various expressions of courtesy according to a standard form that is brief but cogent and contained within a sentence. The purpose is to summarize the tone of previous text and reflect the author's position or stance regarding the arguments or material discussed. If the intent of the letter is to be "evasive," according to Fumagalli, the author deletes la conclusione. As Fumagalli explains, "Infatti, una delle techniche per redigere le lettere evasive, e data appunto dall'omettere completamente la conclusione e passare direttamente al commiato--e.g., In fact, one of the techniques in the drafting of evasive letters is prescribed precisely by omitting completely la conclusione and passing directly to il commiato."

Within la conclusione, however, even further sociolinguistic differentiation exists. La conclusione can be text-specific and re-iterative of earlier passages OR it can default to a type of linguistic template--di maniera (e.g., manneristic, or stylistic). The first solution, as Fumagalli explains is employed in complex and important cases. Examples of these, translated from Fumagalli, include:

1. The causes of the accident are not therefore attributable to our technical management but to lack of observation of preventive norms that had been previously communicated.
2. To conclude, we do not think that the installed plant can resume its full production before another two months and we entreat you to consider the production schedule in light of these facts.

Fumagalli further points out the linguistic rules for these conclusions as consisting of (i) logical consequence with what has preceded (ii) definitive synthesis of the informative scope of the letter, and (iii) sentence generally composed of two co-ordinate propositions one of which re-capitulates the arguments while the other exhibits the theses that are demonstrated.

La conclusione di maniera or the conclusion of the template variety, on the other hand, as Fumagalli explains, is generally employed in letters of administrative routine. Among the examples in Fumagalli's list we find manneristic conclusions like:

1. In attesa di vostro cortese avviso
   (Awaiting your gracious opinion)
2. Nella speranza di un favorevole riscontro
   (With hope of a favorable audit)
3. Assicurandovi della migliore nostra attenzione
   (Assuring you of our best attention)
4. Confidando in una vostra favorevole risposta
   (Trusting in your favorable reply)

Our research, however, goes beyond the given of *la conclusione* and its varieties and *il commiato* as properties of the Italian business letter by investigating where and to what level of elaboration and honorific expression the *la conclusione* appears and by type of letter as defined by content or field of discourse and tenor or role relationships between sender and receiver as these variables are defined by Halliday ("Text as Semantic Choice in Social Contexts" 193). The varieties of letters in the first phase of research that appears below are from *Manuale Di Corrispondenza Commerciale*.

IL COMMIATO

Before identifying examples of *il commiato* by type of letter from samples in *Corrispondenza Commercialde Italiana*, *il commiato*, according to Fumagalli, should be described. What follows is a translated synthesis of its features:

> Even *il commiato* is tied to formulae of protocol, however, well its rigidity may be minimized by extension of text. Principally, the word *salute* (greetings) is used between or among offices and usually regarding business matters. The degree of the letter's fervor or the type of rapport that one has with the recipient will suggest whether *distinti salute* (e.g., distinct greetings), *cordiali salute* e.g., cordially greetings) or *i nostri migliori salute* (e.g., our best greetings) are used.)

Fumagalli prefers that the writer avoid what he calls "bureaucratic" phrases like *nel mentre siamo in attesa di una vostra cortese risposta, vi porgiamo i mostri piu distinti salui* (e.g., while anticipating your kind reply, we extend to you our most distinct greetings) and write instead a more original text --*una vostra risposta ci sara molto gradita e nel frattempo vi* preghiamo di accogliere i nostri miglior salute (e.g., your reply would be most pleasing and in the meantime we extend to you our very best wishes). Il commiato exists not only for closure but has several additional social functions, which include but are not limited to:

the expression of satisfaction with business matters
delineation of excuses for an incident
invitation for personal encounter
request for services
display of regret because of a negative response
re-iterative summation of the letter's tone

DISCUSSION OF LETTERS

Distinti Salute appears as the dominant closure in the following varieties of letters: letters from a firm to their representative to establish terms of client payment, letters from a firm to representatives announcing branch offices, letters from a firm to representatives asking that they visit clients, letters from a firm to representatives regarding commission, and letters from a firm to representatives regarding client payment schedule. Although still within the protocol of il commiato, as established by Fumagalli, an amplification of text or elaboration of code appears when the letters appear to address money involvements for the firm. For example, we find Vi saluto distintamente in a letter from a representative to his firm wherein orders and payments are sent. In a letter from the representative to the firm telling of the client's complaint, we find in attesta di leggerVi, Vi saluto Distintamente, and in a letter from the firm to the client responding to client complaint the closure is ringraziandola ancora della collaborazione, la salutiamo distintamente.

In letters involving communications between a firm and its personnel (including potential personnel like job seekers) we find a variety of protocols. In one letter from a job seeker to the firm we find considerable elaboration: Riservandomi di documentare con regolari certificati il diploma conseguito e il servizion prestato...resto in attesa di una vostra riposta e porgo ossequi--allow me to document my good references and diploma as well as my service record...awaiting your response I offer my best regards. In contrast another job seeker writes merely distinti salute. Similarly there is variation in the firm's response to a job seeker: (1)voglia gradire i nostri migliori salute vs (2)distinti salute.

Letters from a firm regarding employee's personal life or benefits tend to follow the polite il commiato with little amplification of text. In these samples we find, for example La preghiamo di ritornarci contro firmata as the closure in a letter from a female worker regarding maternity contract. In another letter from the firm to an employee telling of change of duties the administrator writes Gradisca i nostri piu distinti salute, and in a letter from a firm to an employment agency regarding hiring of workers the message is rigid and terse--distinti salute.

When we approach correspondence between a firm and its clientele regarding conclusions of contracts or major business transactions or developments we find either (1) extensive elaboration of the il commiato or (2) la conclusione with the features delineated earlier in this paper. In a letter from a firm to its client announcing the appointment of a sales representative in their area, we find the summation and attitudinal closure that typifies la conclusione: Fiduciosi che Ella vorra intrattenere con il Signor Rossi rapporti di affari in un clima di reciproca fiducia e collaborazione, distintamente La salutiamo -- confident that you will conduct with Mr. Rossi business relations in a climate of reciprocal faith and collaboration, distinctly we send greetings. Here the author takes a distinct position e.g., collaboration and reciprocity. We find here a level of ending beyond profuse honorifics -- in short, la conclusione. Similarly, in a letter from a client requesting a catalog and conditions of sale from a firm we find a re-iteration of the "argument" of discourse of the previous text: Fiduciosi di poter intrattenere con Voi interessanti rapporti di affari, restiamo in attesa di leggerVi e Vi porgiamo distinti salute--confident to be able to satisfy your business interests we await your response and extend distint salutations. In the following letter from a firm confirming a client's order and discussing conditions requested by the client, the author anticipates the hoped-for disposition on the part of the client: Certi che vorrete prendere nella dovuta considerazione l'agevolazione, offertaVi distintamente Vi salutiamo -- Certain you will want to take into consideration the options offered to you, we extend our greetings. In a similar letter from a client to a firm "refuting" conditions offered and suggesting others, we find the same anticipation of positive response: Siamo certi che vorrete prendere nella dovuta considerazione le nostre proposte e, in attesa di ricevere Vostre communicazioni, Vi progiamo distinti salute. This conclusione translates: We are certain that you will want to take consideration or give consideration to our proposals and waiting to receive your response we extend distinct salutations.

Letters between a firm and public entities (e.g., post office, etc.) range from no closure, il commiato, and la conclusione. The gradation seems to occur because of the writers' assessment of the level of importance the letter transmits. For example in a letter from the postal office sending a routine statement of account to the firm, there is no closing -- the text just ends. However, in another letter from the firm to the postal office contesting parts of a statement of account, we find: Vi preghiamodi voler rivedere la nostra partita e di trasmetterci il nuovo estratto conto nell'attesa, progiamo distinti salute -- We ask or entreat you to review the items we have listed and transmit to us a new statement of account, waiting your response, we extend distinct salutations.

Finally, in a letter from a firm to a public insurance entity regarding employee compensations for illness we find the simple commiato -- distinti salute.

FURTHER RESEARCH

The extent to which variation in the use of il commiato in its basic simple form or its amplified form exists in larger samples of letters remains to be tested. This testing needs to apply not only to letters in manuals of correspondence published for trade schools or commercial institutes of instruction but also in "live files" from Italian business and industry. What this paper has attempted is but the first phase of this larger research undertaking. Also, a comparative analysis of openings with closings promises to shed still further light on the language of social function in Italian correspondence. The study of both openings and closings in turn promises to tell us about the obligatory and optional properties of text in an environment where the features of genre are viewed as socially conditioned and maintained. This type of study of the social environment of language use is critical, it would seem, for students of Italian or students of business anticipating employment in Italian business or in American business where transactions with Italy occur.

PART TWO: THE U.S. LETTER

In part one of this paper, it was shown that in Italian letters openings, summational closings and closures vary according to a protocol determined by the relationship of writer and receiver. The portion of this paper that follows contrasts this Italian practice with the function of standard U.S. letter openings, summational closings and closures. Contrasting the function of U.S. letter parts to those in the Italian letter is akin to comparing the proverbial apples and oranges if examined directly. It is, however, the hope that such a contrast might bring into clearer focus the role of culture in business communication conducted internationally.

The U.S. business letter in its ideal form (as set down in the books teaching business communication) is remarkably formulaic by comparison to its Italian counterpart. Little if any distinction is ever made regarding status over relation of writer to speaker.

U.S. business letter experts are highly consistent in their advice regarding the complimentary close - the U.S. equivalent to the Italian conclusione di maniera. Virtually every text on business communication advises nearly the exact same choice of 3 to 6 acceptable complimentary closes, almost none making distinctions on writer-reader relationships aside from mild levels of formality. Thus, Lesikar (1988) observes "By far the most commonly used complimentary close is **Sincerely**. **Sincerely yours** is also used, but in recent years the **yours** has been fading away. **Truly** (with and without the **yours**) is also used, but it also has lost popularity. Closes such as **Cordially** and **Respectfully** are appropriate when their meanings fit the writer-reader relationship involved." (569-570)

Andrews and Andrews (1988) indicate:

> The conventional closings - "sincerely yours," "yours truly," "sincerely" - differ little in meaning or tone. "Respectfully" implies a certain deference on the part of the writer. "Cordially," "best regards," and "best" are informal. Some organizations have their own standard sign-off or sign their letters appropriately for the season: "Go Fighting Blue Hens!" However, avoid any such closings in formal business letters. If your letter omits a salutation, then omit the complimentary close. (240-241)

Murphy and Hilderbrandt (1988) observe:

> "Most business letters use one of three key words in the complementary close - sincerely, cordially, or truly. Only the first letter in the first word is capitalized, as shown in the following complimentary closes:

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> Sincerely (most popular)
> Sincerely yours, Yours sincerely
> Very truly yours, Yours very truly
> Cordially

> When an informal salutation like "Dear Tom" (Mary, or nickname) is used, the preferred complimentary closes are:
>
> > Sincerely, Cordially, Warm regards, Best regards (109)

Bonner (1988) in keeping with many experts, makes distinctions in complimentary close only on relative outdatedness: "Cordially, Sincerely, Cordially yours, and Sincerely yours are the most popular complimentary closes. Yours truly, Very truly yours, and Respectfully yours are outdated." (82)

In stark contrast to the Italian letter close, all of these experts affect that the choices are almost interchangeable for all aspects of the complimentary close. As Markel (1988) notes: "Today all the phrases have lost whatever particular connations they once possessed. They can be used interchangeably." (101)

Brown (1982) warns his readers:

> "Avoid hackneyed and old-fashioned expressions such as "Obligingly yours," "I beg to remain," "Hoping this meets with your approval," "Trusting this is satisfactory," and "I remain." Whether they are part of the ending sentence or are used as a complimentary close, they have no place in today's letter. (457)

Similarly, Wolfand Kuiper (1989) note:

> Participial wordings like "Thanking you in advance," "I remain" or "Hoping to receive your prompt reply, we are" wee once popular transitions to the complimentary close; but such participial transitions are considered obsolete in United States correspondence today. Move your reader directly from the last paragraph of the letter body to your complimentary close. (133)

The result is a completely opposite tonal quality between the U.S. and Italian letter. "In fact," as Andrews and Andrews (1988) observe, "American business letters are considered brusque even in the closings that we [Americans] do use." (240)

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The U.S. letter is even more formulaic regarding salutations and greetings. Without exception, all of the above authors instruct that letters begin with a simple "Dear" followed by the name of the recipient and a colon. While discussion occurs over when to use "Ms." and honorific titles, the overall advice is remarkably consistent. Significantly, few actual (or live) business letters vary from the forms suggested by these experts. Gooden and Swerdlow (1987) conducted a survey on the quality of written correspondence in the United States, analyzing 13 industrial and organizational categorizer. They analyzed other factors than complimentary closings and openings, among other items for deficiencies from the norms stated above. They found a remarkable consistency as follows:

INDUSTRY	% OF LETTERS SHOWING DEFICIENCY	
	salutation	complimentary closing
Hospitality	43.3	0.0
Mass Media	70.0	0.0
Education	10.0	3.3
Insurance	16.7	16.7
Investments	20.0	10.0
Banking Services	30.0	33.3
Government	26.7	40.0
Health Services	46.7	43.3
Services Organizations	16.7	0.0
Real Estate	26.7	3.3
Retail	33.3	0.0
Manufacturing	34.5	6.7
Utilities	53.3	12.6

With the exception of utilities and mass media, all categories showed over 50% consistency in their salutations, with educators showing a 90% consistency rate.

Even more uniform were Gooden and Swerdlow's findings on complimentary closings. Health services letters showed the highest deviation from the norm with a 43.3% variance, meaning consistency for well over half in acceptable complimentary closings even in the most variable industry. Moreover, 8 of the 13 industries had a 90% or greater consistency in complementary closings with 4 of these showing 100% consistency (mass media, hospitality, service organizations and retail).

Thus, both in practice and in the ideal, U.S. business letters maintain a formulaic similarity in salutations and closings quite apart from their Italian counterparts.

Conclusion

As indicated in Part One of this paper, testing of Italian letters for findings in "live files" from Italian business and industry still needs to be performed. While, as we have seen, considerably more study of U.S. letters from live files has taken place than of Italian letters, more studies are needed to show differences, if any, that exist when U.S. letters are written with Italian recipients in mind. It would prove fruitful to examine the influence of intended audience in determining the final form of openings and closures of letters sent between cultures. It would also prove useful to determine to what extent frequent contact between Italian and U.S. correspondents affects stylistic changes among the writers. The questions of whether Italian writers are influenced stylistically by their U.S. correspondents and vice versa has yet to be studied. Additionally, it would seem useful to determine whether such culturally-linked changes in style (if they exist already or were they to be consciously undertaken) might serve as an aid to cross-cultural understanding and improved U.S. Italian communication.

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PROFESSIONALISM: THE CORNERSTONE OF A LANGUAGE FOR BUSINESS COURSE

by

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PROFESSIONALISM: THE CORNERSTONE OF A LANGUAGE FOR BUSINESS COURSE

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What is the most important criterion to keep in mind when setting goals for a foreign language for business program, while implementing them, and while attempting to measure performance... yours and that of your students? I hope your answer is "professionalism." This is a goal we should not lose sight of, but too often do. Ultimately our students will be judged, not by us, but by their performance in the business world. Before attempting to show how professional, practice-oriented standards for programs and textbooks can enhance the learning experience for both instructor and student, I should like to give a brief historical overview of the past decade in which applied language courses have begun to proliferate and flourish.

We can begin with four very basic questions:

1. Who takes these courses?
2. Who teaches these courses?
3. Who designs the courses and programs?
4. Who writes the textbooks?

Question number two is perhaps the only one which would elicit a common response. Language for business teachers, in this country at any rate, are not hired, they are trained after hiring for the most part. Far too few of us have business training or experience. This is a constant throughout the decade. Who are our students? Very often professional articles and conference papers proclaim that the bulk of our students are liberal arts majors. This may have been true in the seventies. It is a healthy sign for us that this is no longer the case. A program that does not attract business students lacks a rich classroom resource. The other two variables in the equation have not fared as well until recently. Some language educators have been reluctant to seek the help of the business sector. Inadequate textbooks have been a constant problem, especially at the undergraduate level.

Let us examine these areas in depth starting with the textbook question. While business-language courses proliferate, text production lagged behind. Texts which did reach the market were not only inadequate, but sloppily edited. Why should this be so? The answer lies in reversing our usual perspective in evaluating texts. If we are looking for a traditional language text to adopt, we assemble a wealth of material and literally wade in. We consider the level of the students, and give some thought to who will be teaching the course--a seasoned teacher or a novice. Our next concern is method. We take the author for granted. Our perspective gets reversed when we seek a business text. First of all, we need an author who has been equal to the task, a bilingual professional who is well-versed in business and who has language-teaching expertise.

What sort of text will best serve our needs? It must often educate the instructor as well as the student. Whatever their background, the students have a common goal: a career in a bilingual, bicultural setting. I'd like share my criteria with you. One factor is of paramount importance. Unless my students achieve an extremely high level of proficiency, they will not be able to utilize their language skills in a *professional* capacity. Therefore, I look for the most challenging book on the market, one whose realia or readings reflect a *real-life* level of difficulty and which will present the student with challenging problems to solve in a wide variety of business fields. I don't want a book with all the answers. Most books on the market are geared to the fourth or fifth semester of college study. The readings have been edited (indeed, they have been "dummied down," to use a currently fashionable pedagogical phrase) to present no difficulties to this group. Life, alas, is not edited for levels of difficulty.

How do we resolve this difference? How can we instill professional standards early on? The answer lies in structuring assignments and exercises so that the students learn how to find the answer to difficult problems on their own. To do this, they must become acquainted with a wide variety of reference and research aids. Realia, reference and research are the 3 R's of a business-language course. The student should be told from day one, "You won't learn all the answers in one or two semesters, but you will learn where to find them."

The best sources of realia are the daily newspaper and news magazines in the language. Textbook reading selections are doomed to failure since cultural items and selections related to politics, economics, and finance age too rapidly. It is true that in the last two or three years textbooks have responded to the demand for cross-cultural perspectives by incorporating sections on greetings, handshakes, and differences in telling time. In perhaps the best of these new texts in Spanish Alejandra Tcachuk's En el mundo de los negocios, we accompany Mr. and Mrs. Pierce to the theater in Buenos Aires and listen in as he does business in that city. Nowadays, any good first or second-year Spanish text provides the same cultural perspective. A professor who wants to incorporate more cross-cultural elements must be both archivist and anthologist. However, professor and student alike benefit from the regular incorporation of newspapers and magazines into the course, the most obvious benefit being exposure to new vocabulary which won't appear in dictionaries for a decade or more. What better way for both liberal arts and business students to increase their vocabulary and knowledge of the target culture! "Business" language is everyday language. Literature and business students need to be able to converse more easily on everyday topics. The ability to read the daily newspaper and the advanced ACTFL oral proficiency rating are our best indicators of competency. It is sad to say that many of our undergraduate language majors have not achieved this level of competence.

What are some other specific skills gained from this kind of reading exercise. Current pedagogical theory supports this type of reading exercise in second-year traditional courses for two reasons:

1. To teach the student to guess and to skim for the general idea.
2. To promote higher-order thinking skills.

What else can we "reap" from these 'difficult' selections, and what are some of the problems we need to solve? Once the student has learned to skim, we need to retrain that student to read in another way, to examine the subtleties of syntax. Some of these syntactical difficulties will be unique to business usage. Soon they will get a feel for the way the target language constructs sentences and paragraphs: why it "feels" different from English. The class gradually becomes aware of the need for self-induced cultural "schizophrenia," even when writing a simple business letter.

There are many other situations which become routine in short order, for example, false friends (misleading cognates) which are a pernicious booby trap for this generation of students who have been perhaps too well trained in reading for the general idea. They have been taught to avoid translation. If the word resembles English, the student accepts its meaning to be that of the English cognate and doesn't ponder whether or not it makes sense in the context. To illustrate this point, let's look at Spanish:

utilidades: profit

accion: stock

carpeta: file

etiqueta: label

Everyday words with more than one meaning are another problem. Students become rapidly sensitized to this possibility. The favorite nominee in this category is the French "chemise:" shirt and manila folder. The story of the French bank president and his new American woman executive assistant has become part of our professional folklore. He requests a few "chemises." She protests she is a highly trained MBA and not a maid, and refuses to fetch his shirts.

Another category I'll call "Sunday-go-to-meeting" or "three-dollar" words. These are words whose "dictionary" meanings do not fit easily into an English sentence. This type of vocabulary is an element of style in both business and literary texts. The Spanish words "proporcionar," brindar," and "contar con" are but a few of many such commonly occurring problem words. After coping with a few of these, the student learns how to use the dictionary to his advantage. These dictionary exercises can be tedious. However, they can also serve to install a sense of pride in professionalism. At this point in the semester, I dip into my "treat" file, and I'd like to share one today, a Spanish/English advertisement for the El Corte Ingles Department Store. This rather charming example of a lack of professionalism appeared regularly in the Madrid daily ABC in the winter of 1986-87. under the headline, "All your shopping in Spain without Leaving El Corte Ingles":

El Corte Ingles cuenta con 17 Grandes Centros Comerciales repartidos por toda Espana, dedicados a la Moda y a sus complementos, el Hogar, la Decoracion, los Deportes... Pero, ademas cada Centro de El Corte Ingles es todo un mundo de atenciones y servicios: Agencia de Viajes, cambio de moneda extranjera, Carta de Compras, Restaurantes-Cafeteria, Boutiques Internacionales, souvenirs y articulos turisticos, admision de Tarjetas de Credito... Todo para hacer mas faciles sus compras.

El Corte Ingles disposes of 17 stores in Spain. They are devoted to Fashion and its accessories to the Home, to the Decoration, to the Sports... But, besides each store of El corte Ingles gathers a full range of services: Travel Agency, Exchange, Shopping Card purchasing, Restaurants & Cafeterias, Internacional Boutiques, souvenirs and typical gifts. Credit Cards acceptance... Everything to make your shopping easier.

This selection works very well in second and third-year traditional language courses, too. It is a "treat" since its garbled English instills a sense of superiority in the students. They can do better than that and do so since by now they're used to deal with vocabulary and constructions which have to be paraphrased rather than "translated". This type of exercise -

1. makes the student realize how professionalism is necessary to successful communication.
2. stresses the value of diligent dictionary use.

The instructor must encourage the students to cope cheerfully with the challenges of everyday "realia," hopefully thus instilling in them a sense of professionalism and pride in accomplishment. This is the the point in the course where differences among student groups are sometimes very evident. Business student accept this objective, and journalism majors happily sleuth away in grammars and dictionaries. However, language and literature majors often resist the notion that perfection is desirable. When this gap becomes too evident I turn to my "trick" file, generally just before the middle of the term. I often utilize the following exercise from Nelly Santos (376) as a pass/fail quiz or a graded homework assignment. This sample insurance document covers merchandise being shipped from Guatemala City to Damascus, Syria, via the SS Caribia. The sacks of cardamom are marked "M.A. and Co., Lattakia," and Affaki Freres is listed at a Damascus address as the consignee. The students are asked to suppose that the merchandise has disappeared in route and to assume the role of the insurance investigator. They are instructed to trace the route and most likely means of transportation and to explain all of the unfamiliar place names, using the unabridged atlas. The student who has not yet learned that in a business language course only "A" work will get the job done will probably say "Oh, the stuff will sail from Guatemala City to Damascus on the SS Caribia." There will, however, not be a repeat performance. Even the laziest of students will not get caught in this trap again. The diligent students who name Puerto Burrios and Latakia as the port cities involved are justly proud of themselves.

How else can the instructor promote pride in professionalism? 'Real' tasks are the most successful aid:

1. Each student should have a term project which will help tailor the course to the individual's career plans. Sometimes this can be an actual assignment for a job the student holds.
2. Students can be assigned a job which has already been done by a professional, perhaps on a team basis. They can compare their own solutions to the assignment to the "professional" version.
3. Critiquing a translation or ad which has appeared in print and is poorly done can boost self esteem.

4. Target language correspondence or reports which turn up on your desk with pleas for a translation from elsewhere in the university make good class team assignments. Students are sometimes paid for these.
5. Re-editing the class text is another creative possibility. My own students, for example, produced an English-Spanish vocabulary for the Santos text.

Well, we leave our students smiling, and confident in their skills. But what about the instructor? There is hope for the novice, Business publishers are starting to fill the reference gap. Guides for the businessman (such as the new Barron's and Baedeker's series) can be of enormous use to the language instructor. And academic publishers at long last are beginning to respond to need for texts in which the "realia" is real, and not adapted to a level of difficulty. In the end the foreign-language instructor may be driven to consult with someone in, of all places, the business college. Like East and West they've never met. However, through the cloud of paranoia that heretofore has often obscured vision the language professor perceives one thing: "some of my best students are from Business." I hope that by the end of the decade more of my colleagues will also be saying (and meaning) "some of our best friends are in Business!

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A MODEL INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION PROGRAM FOR SMALL BUSINESSES

by

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A Model International Business Program for Small Business

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Introduction:

Normandale Community College is a comprehensive community college located in Bloomington, Minnesota, a southern suburb of Minneapolis and west of St. Paul, in an area of high population density and business activity. The college is the largest of the fourteen Minnesota community colleges, with a current, credit generating student count of 7,000 and an additional 7,500 non-credit, continuing education students. The college service area includes a concentration of high technology research and manufacturing including computing hardware and software and health technology. In addition, retail sales, banking, the hospitality industry and food processing contribute significantly to the economic activity of the southern metropolitan area.

Normandale Community College has developed long standing, cooperative programs in business education with area firms and commercial organizations and with other regional post secondary institutions. In addition, in the last four years the college has been engaged in the process of internationalization of its programs and curricular offerings. While examining the educational needs of the community, the college identified the need for international business training for small to middle sized firms that were unable to provide their own training nor willing to invest in high cost external consulting. Further, the college found that two metropolitan economic development agencies, specifically serving women and minorities, expressed a strong need for international business education for their clients with potential to engage in export activity.

In order to address the community need for international training for small business, the college presented a proposal to the United States Department of Education Business and International Education Program with the specific goal to assist a target number of twenty small to middle sized firms to increase their export capabilities to the Netherlands and West Germany, countries where Minnesota and the Minnesota World Trade Center have already developed strong trade ties. The primary efforts of the program are directed toward women and minority owned companies through the cooperation of the Normandale Small Business Development Center, the Metropolitan Economic Development Association, a minority business development corporation, and the Women's Economic Development Corporation of Minnesota. The program objectives are to increase the international trade capabilities and consequently the volume of international business of the target companies; to enhance the international business expertise of other small businesses that may choose to participate in the program; to initiate cooperative approaches to international education between the academic community and business; and to advance the awareness and understanding of conducting business abroad for the Minnesota small business community and the Minnesota Community College System by developing a model program that others may use.

The United States Department of Education Business and International Education Program has granted Normandale Community College approximately $56,000 for a two year program for the academic years 1987-88 and 1988-89.

Components of the Model Program:

In order to meet the need for international business training for small businesses without the resources to provide their own training, and therefore, hesitant to approach the possibility of entering international markets, the program has developed a five part training component, a continuing support and development component and an implementation component where trading contacts are made.

The **training component** consists of five activities:

1. Six How to Export Workshops
2. An International Marketing Seminar Series
3. A Small Business Export Manual
4. Individual Consulting Services
5. Language and Culture Survival Skills

During the 1987 through 1989 academic years, 6 one half to one day **Export Workshops** are being conducted by international business experts with practical experience in foreign trade. Topics of the workshops include how to move money and goods across borders, marketing and selling abroad, foreign exchange and the national and local economies, country briefings, negotiating international contracts and distributorships and inter-governmental agreements on trade and investment. The **International Marketing Series** is seven two hour breakfast seminars featuring lectures by experts and question and answer sessions on topics such as promotion decisions in international marketing, how to forecast international sales, marketing products and services internationally and international business ethics. The **Small Business Export Manual**, developed by a business planning consultant and college staff, will be used by participants to evaluate their individual business structure, through a series of planning exercises, outlining a plan to enter specific international markets with specific products or services. In addition, the Export Manual will assist participants in their preparation for their **Individual Business Consultations** with experienced business professionals, who will assist the client in developing a realistic international business plan, including the Comparison Shopping Service for exports activity provided by the the International Trade Administration. Finally, participants will receive six sessions of intensive **language and cultural instruction** to facilitate travel, business and social communication and develop an awareness and appreciation of cultural differences, social manners and business practices of the Netherlands and West Germany.

The **continuing support and development component** will further develop clients' ability to plan their entry into foreign markets. As training of program participants is concluding in the Fall of 1988, the program will provide continuing consultation on the international business plan and , in addition, if appropriate, **student internship assistance** will be available to client firms through the International Business and Small Business Programs of Mankato State University and the College of St. Thomas. Such internships will begin before European trade begins and continue after trading contact is implemented. Further, the program will provide a **Quarterly International Trade Newsletter** for all participants in workshops, seminars and trade planning. The newsletter will highlight workshop and seminar schedules and content, continuing education activities and classes for small businesses, international trade issues, activities and opportunities, tips on trade and interviews with successful international business persons. The newsletter will continue after the end of the grant period and serve as a means of recruiting participants and continuing the program in other international markets. The final step before implementing the individual firm's international business plan includes two **fact finding trips** to the Netherlands and West Germany by program administrators to make direct contact with economic development groups, trade agencies and Chambers of Commerce to facilitate the contact and promotion of participants' products or services. An initial trip was conducted in January of 1988 and a second trip presenting client products on video tape with a prospectus will be undertaken in late May of 1988. At no cost to program participants, their products will be presented to contacts developed on the first visit.

The **application and implementation** of the program's training by businesses will occur when selected participants who have completed their international marketing plan and individual consultations will contact specific businesses, trade groups and institutions in the Netherlands and West Germany on a **two week trade mission** in early December of 1988. The trade mission will be jointly sponsored by the Minnesota World Trade Association and lead by a prominent Minnesotan. Participants will pay their own package and promotional costs for participation in the trade mission which will represent their only major investment in exploring those foreign markets, besides nominal costs for seminars and workshops.

In order to advise, monitor, evaluate and provide expert guidance for the program components and the individual activities, an **International Business Advisory Committee** has been formed of community business persons, Chamber of Commerce representatives, a U.S. Department of Commerce representative, an international attorney, a banker and college administration and program staff. This committee meets quarterly and provides valuable input for workshop and seminar topics, including teaching some sessions. The Advisory Committee, with external expert consultants will undertake a program evaluation and recommendations for further program development and expansion to new foreign markets. Potential focal areas are Thailand and the ASEAN countries of Southeast Asia and Costa Rica and the countries of the Caribbean Basin Initiative. The college has already conducted initial contacts and visits to these areas and has developed the basis for future program development through both post secondary education and business institutions.

A final component of the International Education Program for Small Businesses is **dissemination of the program as a model** and as a resource for other educational institutions. For that reason, this presentation has been given and Normandale Community College offers its program resources and information to you as a method for addressing the need for training and skill acquisition in international trade for small and medium sized businesses, especially those of target minority ownership. The college would be pleased to provide materials, newsletters or advice and would welcome visitors to our program.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SELF-INSTRUCTIONAL LANGUAGE PROGRAMS (NASILP) AND INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS: NATURAL ALLIES

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NASILP and International Business: Natural Allies

Any American college or university business department must offer curricula which are significantly internationalized to be taken seriously in today's academic market. There are many components to an effective and successful international business program, among which are meaningful, focused foreign language and culture studies and experiences. To provide these particular segments of an overall schedule, institutions generally look to appropriate courses in foreign languages, area studies, history, political science, geography, anthropology and to activities such as overseas studies and internships. Problems often arise, however, when staffing and budgetary limitations preclude a totally felicitous admixture of offerings for a solid program.

Very often the short fall comes in the number, type and scope of foreign languages available to the students looking to participate in American business' belated awakening to the importance of relevant numbers of their representatives knowing at least the essentials of the customer's language, customs and general culture. Some major university centers in the United States have available for their students fully developed, usually traditional, academic programs in perhaps 8-10 language areas and courses in something like 8-10 more. A very limited number offers even more opportunities for foreign language study. What about the rest? The vast majority of universities, four-year colleges and junior colleges in the country do not have the resources to present their students with opportunities of this magnitude. Yet almost all of the colleges and universities offer business programs. Since the global economy we live in makes all business programs implicitly international in nature, it is obvious that the tendency toward internationalizing the business programs will continue and that more American institutions will want to develop explicitly international business programs. For many of these schools, a cost-effective, media-intensive proven approach to the problem such as that developed by the National Association of Self Instruction Language Programs (NASILP), may present an important aid. Indeed, in some instances a NASILP or similar method could make the difference of whether an international business program is feasible at a given institution or not.

NASILP was developed mainly by a group of academic institutions in the northeastern part of the United States. Its aim was to deal realistically with the critical situation regarding the dearth of study of a large number of more or less uncommonly taught languages. It has today become the premier inter-institutional alliance for dealing with this problem throughout the United States. Approximately 140 institutions, mainly of higher education, are now members. It sets and oversees standards and practices, provides workshops and guidance for new and regular member organizations, gathers and disseminates information regarding available and developing self-teaching equipment and materials, keeps records on and coordinates qualified testers, and generally gives direction and cohesion to a growing national effort.

The NASILP method is more controlled than the description, "self instruction," might indicate. It requires an active coordinator who screens, orients, supervises, and is responsible for organizing and running the program. The coordinator, with the help of appropriate colleagues or the national office of NASILP, selects and orients appropriate tutors. NASILP workshops and informational services also help the coordinator to find fitting materials, equipment and qualified tester/consultants. The financial commitment of the coordinator's institution can be quite small. Impressive results have been obtained with books, purchased by the students, and cassette players, tapes and native-speaking practice tutors. More sophisticated equipment can, of course, enhance the results greatly. The most promising new equipment and materials being developed and used in the NASILP approach are video drill and instruction tapes, and direct international television. Computer aided instruction, especially when it is voice directed and employs verbal responses, is now also available and used for self instruction. Even the use of these more sophisticated technical aids rarely causes the cost of instruction in the NASILP mode to match or even approximate the costs of regular instruction. This holds true even when, as is typically the case, the coordinator is granted a reduced teaching load consonant with the number students and make up of the NASILP program he or she coordinate.s

Students desiring to study a foreign language in the NASILP mode are usually not permitted to select a language, or course type within that language, if it is available in regular instruction on campus. A screening session is held with each student to be certain the student fully understands the program and its expectations. Students are generally discouraged from attempting the program if they have had no successful foreign language learning experience in the regular classroom method, are not academically secure students who work will independently and do not seem prepared and motivated to work hard. NASILP school members vary as to their selectivity for the program as they do in other aspects of the NASILP guidelines. SUNY at Buffalo, for instance, one of the largest and oldest NASILP programs actually turned away 300 of the 600 would-be participants this year in its program involving the study of 10 different languages. Other NASILP schools may deal with small numbers in two or three languages on a less rigorous selection basis.

After initial individual interviews, students accepted into the program gather in larger groups for their first orientation session. These groups may consist of all students in a given language, or language group, or of the whole group of students in the NASILP program. Usually even students who have already studied for a semester or more in the NASILP mode must come to all organization and orientation meetings. Generally there are between 2-4 such meetings per semester. At each of them, video tapes on the NASILP method are seen and analyzed. General problems facing the students are shared and discussed. Continued guidance is given by the coordinator. At the first general meeting of the semester, the students meet their tutors and set up two one-hour drill or practice sessions per week. They also learn what books they are to purchase, what material they are to cover in those books, the weekly tape or video requirements for the semester, how they are to prepare and perform at the drill sessions, etc.

They are also reminded that their grade in the course is set by an outside, qualified examiner who acts as a consultant at various times during the semester. Some NASILP schools have two examinations, one at mid-semester and one at the end of the semester. Other schools have just one at the end of the semester. The examinations are generally oral in nature and individually conducted. NASILP assists individual campuses in finding qualified testers and is currently planning workshops to orient otherwise qualified testers to the NASILP method and appropriate oral testing style. NASILP expects testers to be trained teachers of the language being tested who are currently employed and actively teaching the language at an accredited institution of higher education.

The tutor is normally a foreign student though often members of ethnic groups in an area make appropriate tutors. The tutor is not expected to be a teacher, nor should he or she be permitted to act as one. The tutor should speak the language fully as a native and employ standard speech or an acceptable dialect. NASILP provides video tapes and general guidance for the tutor and the coordinator. In general, the tutor is expected to be a very active drill master. His or her students must practice in the language laboratory at least two hours prior to each practice session and a total of at least five hours per week. These hours would vary, of course, dependent upon the amount of credit being sought for the course, as would the number of meetings with the practice tutor. The requirement of five hours in the language laboratory and two hours with the tutor is typical for a course carrying three semester hours of credit. One constant, however, is that the students' books remains closed and out of reach during the practice sessions. A student who does not come to the session prepared to practice without the use of a book is considered unprepared and, usually, not able to fully participate in the session. The tutor keeps a record of such cases of lack of preparation as well as absences and reports them to the coordinator. After one or more warnings such students are usually dropped from the program. The basis for the drop is a contract or agreement the student must sign to participate in the program. Such forced drops are not common because of the screening and the high level of self-motivation typically exhibited by participating students. Further, the vigor of the work and the guidance of the coordinator generally suffice to lead a student who is unable to keep up with the work to drop out of the course on his own free will.

The coordinator typically visits each group of students 4-6 times per semester, making suggestions and overseeing the whole process. Groups are usually kept small, rarely over 4-6 students, in order to encourage active use of the language. Trained foreign language teachers make the best coordinators. Often a teacher of a foreign language not in great demand, acting as the NASILP coordinator, adds to the number and type of languages his or her department can offer while at the same time protecting his job. Many successful coordinators have come from other disciplines, however. Aside from personal motivation, this may come about because knowledge of one or more foreign languages, often uncommonly taught ones, is sometimes required by geographers, anthropologists, historians, etc.

Since it is possible to start a NASILP program with few students and resources, it is an ideal way for any school to begin to add the important element of oral proficiency to the other components required for an effective program in international business. Few NASILP programs permit their students to take a language for more than 4-6 semesters of study. Since it emphasizes oral proficiency, however, the results in this area, the one most desired for international business programs, are more impressive than one, not experienced with the method, might expect. All grammar and vocabulary drills, almost all work, is done in the target language from the beginning. As a rule, the use of English is not permitted in practice sessions with the tutor. The extensive work with audio and video tapes buttresses this oral aspect of the study, indeed, is more important to the success of the program than the work with the tutors. Careful selection of the students, regular control and guidance, and rigorous testing plus the oral focus, generally bring about an ability to speak a language with a fluency sometimes not attained in a more traditional major.

This relatively quick path to a useful level of oral proficiency is another reason the NASILP approach works well in an international business program. It permits a student to work on two, three or even more languages in preparing himself or herself for a career. It also works well for adding languages quickly, as needed, while pursuing a career. The open nature of the method and its heavy reliance on media permit flexible scheduling, including a heavy concentration of work that can amount to total immersion for shorter or longer periods of time. The large number of languages which are easily available for study in the NASILP mode and the relatively inexpensive costs involved present the possibility of adding a rich array of foreign language learning opportunities for any institutions of higher education. It is particularly valuable to those institutions trying to develop or enrich a solid program in international business.

PJM:mbb

EXPERT SYSTEMS - THE NEW INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE OF BUSINESS

by

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ABSTRACT

EXPERT SYSTEMS - THE NEW INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE OF BUSINESS

Expert systems have received considerable attention in the data processing community. But few business educators understand the basic concepts of expert systems or can appraise the tremendous impact they will have on international business. This presentation covers the fundamental principles of the design and development of expert systems in business. Special emphasis is placed on the linguistic aspects and structure of the knowledge base needed to support an expert system. The organization and architecture of typical expert systems is illustrated. Computer software to automate the production of expert systems is discussed.

Included, is an example demonstrating how an expert system, originally developed in English, can be modified for French speaking users. The translation process involves two simple steps. A set of "translation rules" convert the external language dependent input variables into the internal knowledge-dependent functional variables, and then the display statements are translated. The structure, simplicity, and directness of expression of the information in the knowledge base reduces the effort needed in these language transformations.

The presentation concludes that just as COBOL and FORTRAN have become international languages of data processing and scientific computing, expert systems can be an effective means of capturing complex business knowledge and offering it to an international community of users.

INTRODUCTION

Expert systems have been termed the most critical development in computer science to emerge in the past decade [1]. Yet very few people understand what expert systems are, how they work, and why they are so important.

Expert systems are computer programs designed to simulate human reasoning and expertise. Therefore, expert systems can be applied to a wide spectrum of real life problems. Expert system applications have already ranged from medical systems to IRS tax auditing. Simply stated, if the problem can be specified in terms of rules and facts, then an expert system can be used. [2]

THE ORIGIN OF EXPERT SYSTEMS

Expert systems are an evolutionary development of Artificial Intelligence research. The objective of Artificial Intelligence (AI) research is to produce computer programs that can simulate intelligent human behavior. AI was pioneered and developed at major university laboratories in MIT, Stanford, Cal Berkeley, Carnegie-Mellon, and Yale. [3]

At first, AI researchers attempted to computerize logical problem solving techniques. Highly structured board games, like chess and checkers and the restricted venue of mathematical theorem proving, provided an ideal environment in which early AI researchers could develop new programming paradigms and test automated problem solving methodology.

There were some spectacular initial successes. Allen Newell and Herbert Simon developed a program that could solve puzzles and prove mathematical theorems. A checkers program that eventually defeated the world champion human player was written. AI chess programs played well enough to challenge expert players. Amid this general euphoria, extravagant claims were made for the future of AI [2].

However, despite these early triumphs, fundamental problems remained. AI researchers discovered it was extremely difficult to translate the experience gained in working with problem solving in these restricted environments, with their clearly defined rules, to the complexities of real world situations, with all their complexities and ambiguities. It was soon realized that a human uses many different types of knowledge and experience in solving even the most elementary practical problem.

However, the science of medicine was one very important area of human endeavor in which, despite all the real world contradictions and difficulties, problem solving was firmly rooted in logic and reasoning. Indeed, a sub-specialty of AI, Medical Artificial Intelligence (MAI), was defined as the use of AI techniques and computational support to simulate the mental processes a physician exerts in the treatment of patients. Research in MAI focused on what was required for the computer to capture and simulate the expertise of the physician. [2,4]

KNOWLEDGE-BASED SYSTEMS

It required a dramatic new approach to move AI problem solving techniques into the real world. In 1967, a team headed by Edward Feigenbaum developed a program called DENDRAL. [5] DENDRAL used data about the fragmentation of an organic molecule provided by a mass spectrometer to infer the structure of the molecule. The program derived its power not from automating logical functions, as so many AI programs had done before, but from processing tremendous volumes of information about the spectra of thousands of different chemical compounds and the rules about the ways compounds break up in a mass spectrometer. Without that additional knowledge of rules, the sheer number of possible combinations made the problem too cumbersome to compute. DENDRAL was highly successful, and is still in use today.

Feigenbaum pointed out that real world problem solving comes not only from logic and reasoning, but also from the proper employment of enormous amounts of specific knowledge about a subject. In essence, a human expert uses compiled data and years of experience encapsulated as "rules of thumb" or heuristics, as well as traditional logic to solve problems. Therefore, like DENDRAL, intelligent problem solving programs would have to process this type of "knowledge" to successfully emulate human experts.

EXPERT SYSTEMS

The next step toward simulation of human expertise also was made at Stanford. [2,3,4] MYCIN was developed to diagnose bacterial infections of the blood and prescribe drug therapy. The goal was to have MYCIN act as an "intelligent consultant" to physicians.

The "knowledge" about bacterial infections was stored within MYCIN as a series of English language IF/THEN/ ELSE "production" rules. These rules appeared in the form:

Rule 50:

IF 1) the infection is primarily bacteremia, and
 2) the the site of the culture is sterile, and
 3) the suspected port of entry of the organism is the gastro-intestinal tract
THEN there is suggestive evidence (0.7) that the identity of the organism is bactercoides.

The IF portion of the rule is called the "premise" and the THEN portion of the rule is called the "conclusion." As in classical logic, when the premise is true, then the facts contained in the conclusion can be used to find a solution to a problem.

Because medicine rarely has clear cut "yes or no" cases, MYCIN rules had to be probabilistic. A "Certainty Factor" (0.7 in the above rule) could be included to indicate the degree of belief in the applicability of the rule to the given situation.

A likelihood calculus was developed to give a good estimate of final truth, based on these Certainty Factors. Through this device, MYCIN was able to arrive at a correct result with incomplete and only partially correct information.

The complete collection of rules about the subject was called a knowledge base. The MYCIN knowledge base contained about 550 rules.

MYCIN could also "explain" its reasoning processes. Physicians could interrogate the system to see the rules used by MYCIN and to "trace" the "logic" behind "advice."

Even more important, when matched against physicians with an actual set of case studies, MYCIN's performance was outstanding.[3] For the first time, a program successfully simulated a human expert in a real world field. Naturally, it was called an "expert system."

A powerful new AI tool was developed as a result of the Stanford research effort.

THE STRUCTURE OF AN EXPERT SYSTEM

The developers realized that the MYCIN program could be logically divided into three separate parts. The first of these was the knowledge base. This portion contained the "expertise" needed to solve problems in the form of IF/THEN/ELSE rules. The next part of the program was the section for testing the rules to find those applicable to each particular case. Since this testing followed the logical rules of inference, it was named the "inference engine." The last part was the "user interface." It handled all the various system communication tasks, such as displaying results, obtaining any additional information from the user, and updating or modifying the knowledge base. [2,3,4]

INFERENCE ENGINE

The inference engine was designed to carry out the logical processes needed to offer sound advice. This was done by "backward" chaining through the knowledge base. In backward chaining, the inference engine first assumes a specific "goal state" or final diagnosis. The knowledge base is searched to find a rule with that diagnosis as a conclusion. The premise of that rule is examined, and then the inference engine attempts to find a rule in which that premise appears as rule conclusion. As this cycle is repeated, the inference engine "chains" through the knowledge base, as long as the assumed diagnosis is consistent with the "initial state" -- the actual symptoms and test results reported thus far for the patient.

If the symptoms matched the disease, then the diagnosis was correct. If not, then a new diagnosis consistent with the data collected to that point is assumed and the process repeated.

Backward chaining is like first looking at the answers on a multiple choice test and then testing each answer to determine if it meets the question data. Backward chaining is most effective when there are few goal states and many initial states. We use backward chaining to solve many everyday problems.

The other approach is called "forward chaining." Here, each possible initial state is probed in turn, until a successful (matching goal state) solution is obtained. Forward chaining is most effective when there are few initial states and many goal states -- a situation that is relatively rare with real-life practical problems.

EXPERT SYSTEM SHELLS

One of the most profound discoveries of the MYCIN team was that the knowledge base could be stripped out of the MYCIN program and that the user interface and inference engine portions would stand alone to form an "expert system shell." Now, new expert systems could be built by other subject matter experts by simply creating a new knowledge base and inserting it in the shell. EMYCIN was the name given to the expert system shell created from the MYCIN program. The savings in development time and effort to be gained by using the expert system shell were tremendous.

However, MYCIN was written in a specialized AI programming language called LISP. LISP programs were slow in execution on computer systems of that time. [2] Large LISP expert systems, like MYCIN, required large and expensive mainframe computers, if consultations were to be completed in any reasonable time period.

Special LISP machines and workstations were developed for AI applications in general. These computers used the LISP language as basic machine instructions. They could execute AI programs many times faster than general purpose computers. However, LISP machines were costly, and few organizations could support specialized computers restricted to only AI applications.

However, as research successes continued to mount, business became aware of the commercial potential of expert systems. A number of commercially successful expert systems were developed by the early '80s.

PERSONAL COMPUTER EXPERT SYSTEM DEVELOPMENT TOOLS

When the business computer environment changed, with the introduction of the IBM PC, expert system shells were developed for personal computers. The initial packages were still costly and the PC was slow in executing expert system programs. However, with the next generation of Intel 80286-based computers, desktop expert systems became practical.

The cost for expert system development tools also has dropped steadily. There are now a number of sophisticated expert system development tools (ESDT) available in a price range from several thousand down to several hundred dollars.

A major price break occurred in early 1987, when Paperback Software delivered its VP-EXPERT system. At a retail cost of about $130, VP-EXPERT offered tools and capabilities previously found only with ESDT packages at many times that price. [6]

The package received outstanding reviews, and within three months of availability, Paperback Software announced that more units of VP-EXPERT were delivered than all of the other PC ESDT packages combined.

The combination of a low-cost, powerful development tool and the ubiquitous personal computer placed expert systems within the reach of everyone in business.

EXPERT SYSTEMS AS COMMUNICATION TOOLS

The use of expert systems is normally considered to offer the following advantages:

1. Continuous availability -- If the computer is available, the expert system is available.

2. Can be readily replicated -- An expert system can easily be copied; a human expert cannot.

3. Consistent advice -- An expert system will provide consistent, uniform advice.

4. Provides an explanation -- An expert system can explain the line of reasoning used to arrive at a solution. The user is free to accept or reject that reasoning for a particular case.

5. Increase capacity -- Expert systems can add rules to increase the scope of the problem domain.

6. Function in hostile environments -- Embedded expert systems can be used wherever a computer can operate.

7. Captures knowledge and expertise -- The problem solving ability of the human expert encoded into the knowledge base remains with the organization even after the human expert leaves.

This last benefit is particularly germane to this paper because of the knowledge representation techniques used with expert systems. The highly structured representation of knowledge makes the translation of the knowledge into other languages far easier than the usual freeform text. In addition, the use of linguistic aspects of knowledge transfer are focused in user interface data gathering messages and explanatory remarks associated with rules. These two properties, along with formal encoding of expertise, afford expert systems one additional and very significant advantage -- that of minimal language dependency.

Indeed, it may be fair to call expert systems a new medium for the exchange of knowledge between countries and cultures. The three following examples are designed to demonstrate this "lingua franca" aspect of expert systems.

EXPERT SYSTEMS EXAMPLES USING VP-EXPERT

In order to concentrate on the linguistic aspects of expert systems, we selected a very familiar problem domain for this expert system example. In this way, the rules in knowledge bases of the expert systems are readily understandable. However, the principles outlined here would remain applicable for far more complicated cases. In fact, the specialized vocabularies of many technical areas of business and science are already internationalized. Therefore, the modifications to expert systems operating in those domains might even be less severe than for the example that follows.

The expert system for this example was prepared with VP-EXPERT using an IBM PC compatible computer. The knowledge base was developed and entered using a standard word processing package (WordStar 4). The rule premises contain conditional logical expressions. The rule conclusions indicate the action to be taken if the premise is true. CNF values are used to indicate the Certainty Factors associated with values used in a particular rule. The semicolon [;] is a delimiter used by VP-EXPERT to indicate the end of a rule.

VP-EXPERT allows each of the rules to be augmented with WHY clauses that explain the reason the rule is used for a given situation. ASK statements are also utilized to provide information to the user on how to enter data. In addition, there are a number of procedural statements and declarations to assist the program in managing the display of questions and results. These keywords are all in technical English.

The example is an expert system designed to act as a "fashion advisor." Table 1 shows the knowledge base for this expert system in English. Table 2 shows the changes to the knowledge base required to create a French version of the expert system. Figures 1 and 2 show expert system consultations in English and French, respectively.

The translation technique is a simple two stage process. First, a set of stereotyped translation "rules" are created for the internal knowledge base variables. These rules simply translate the names of the variables from one language to the other. The variable names for the conversion were the same as in the original knowledge base, with the suffix FRENCH added to indicate that they were translated to the French.

Next, the displays (DISPLAY, ASK, and CHOICES) statements are converted from the source language (English, in this case) to the target language (French, in this case). The high degree of structure in the knowledge base makes this a straightforward task. Again, the same basic variable names were used with the suffix FRENCH added.

The construction of the translation "rules" can even be further simplified by using Induction Tables for each variable. An Induction Table can be used to describe the variable-value relationships for variables in a knowledge base. Table 3 shows the Induction Tables needed to translate the "Fashion" knowledge base.

VP-EXPERT will automatically produce a set of IF/THEN rules from an Induction Table. These rules can be inserted into the source knowledge base to reduce much of the clerical work involved in converting a knowledge base to another language.

CONCLUSION

The price of sophisticated expert system development tools like VP-EXPERT is now at the level of electronic spreadsheets. Anyone with a personal computer can create effective expert systems. As the above examples illustrate, once the knowledge and expertise is captured within the knowledge base of the expert system -- in a structured and stereotyped format -- it can be readily converted for use in another country with a different language.

There is little doubt that encoding knowledge in this format presents international business with a unique opportunity for transfer and dissemination of expertise. Now, business and language educators must be in a position to understand expert system applications and illustrate their use so that the next generation of international executives and managers are as comfortable with the transfer of knowledge and decision making processes as they are with the transfer of data processing and spreadsheet applications.

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TABLE 1

ENGLISH VERSION OF A DRESS FOR SUCCESS FASHION EXPERT SYSTEM KNOWLEGE BA

```
ACTIONS
DISPLAY"
                  FRENCH FASHION EXPERT SYSTEM

       THIS EXPERT SYSTEM WILL HELP YOU DRESS FOR SUCCESS
             BY SELECTING A COLOR COORDINATED OUTFIT



Please press any key to continue~"
CLS
        FIND SHOES
        FIND TIE;


RULE BROWN
IF      SUIT=Brown AND
        SHIRT=Tan OR
        SHIRT=White AND
        SHOES=Brown
THEN    TIE=Brown
CLS
DISPLAY"
You have decided to dress in brown hues.  We recommend a brown or
tan tie to continue the color theme.  However, a touch of color
at the throat can be very effective, so a yellow or turquois
tie would also be striking.  If this is the second or third time
this week you are using the same color scheme, alternate the
choice of ties with your outfit."
;
RULE BLUE
IF      SUIT=Blue AND
        SHIRT=Blue OR
        SHIRT=White AND
        SHOES=Black
THEN    TIE=Blue
CLS
DISPLAY"
You have decided to dress in blue.  We recommend a blue tie to
continue the color theme.  A maroon tie is another good choice.
However, a touch of color at the throat can also be very
effective, so a red or pink tie would also be striking.  If this
is the second or third time this week you are using the same
color scheme, alternate the choice of ties with your outfit."
;

RULE GRAY
IF      SUIT=Grey AND
        SHIRT=White AND
        SHOES=Black
THEN    TIE=Red
```

```
CLS
DISPLAY"
You have decided to dress in grey.  We recommend a grey tie to
continue the color theme.  A maroon tie is another good choice.
However, a touch of color at the throat can also be very
effective, so a red or pink tie would also be striking.  If this
is the second or third time this week you are using the same
color scheme, alternate the choice of ties with your outfit."
;
RULE WRONG_SHOES_BLACK
IF      SUIT=Brown AND
        SHOES=Black
THEN    WRONG=yes
CLS
DISPLAY"
You have decided to dress in brown hues.  We recommend brown
rather than black shoes to continue the color theme for your
outfit."
;
RULE WRONG_SHOES_BROWN
IF      SUIT=Blue OR
        SUIT=Gray AND
        SHOES=Brown
THEN    WRONG=yes
CLS
DISPLAY"
We recommend black shoes rather than brown to continue the color
theme for your outfit."
;
RULE STOP
IF WRONG=yes
THEN TIE=STOP
;
ASK SUIT: "What color suit are you going to wear?";
CHOICES SUIT: Brown,Blue,Grey;

ASK SHIRT: "What color shirt have you selected?";
CHOICES SHIRT: Tan,Blue,White;

ASK SHOES: "What color shoes have you selected";
CHOICES SHOES: Brown,Black;
```

TABLE 2 -- THE FRENCH VERSION OF THE SAME KNOWLEDGE BASES

```
ACTIONS
DISPLAY"
              EXPERT SYSTEME POUR LA MODE FRANCAISE

CE SYSTEME EXPERT VOUS AIDERA A CHOISIR, POUR LE SUCCES DE VOS ENTREPRIS
UN ENSEMBLE AUX COULEURS ASSORTIES



PRESSER N'IMPORTE QUELLE TOUCHE DU CLAVIER POUR CONTINUER, SVP~
"
CLS
        FIND SHOES
        FIND TIE;


RULE BROWN
IF      SUIT=Brown AND
        SHIRT=Tan OR
        SHIRT=White AND
        SHOES=Brown
THEN    TIE=Brown
CLS
DISPLAY"
Vous avez decide de vous habiller en tons marron.  Nous recommandons une
cravate marron ou beige pour continuer dans ces tons.  Cependant, une to
de couleur vive au cou peut faire beaucoup d'effet; une cravate jaune ou
turquoise serait tres frappante.  Si vous utilisez ces couleurs pour la
seconde or troisieme fois cette semaine, ce sera une bonne idee de chang
les couleurs de la cravate et du costume.
"
;
RULE BLUE
IF      SUIT=Blue AND
        SHIRT=Blue OR
        SHIRT=White AND
        SHOES=Black
THEN    TIE=Blue
CLS
DISPLAY"
Vous avez decide de vous habiller en bleu.  Nous recommandons une cravat
bleue pour continuer dans ces tons.  Une cravate marron est aussi un bon
choix.  Cependant, une touche de couleur vive au cou peut faire
beaucoup d'effet; une cravate rouge ou rose serait tres frappante.
Si vous utilisez ces couleurs pour la seconde or troisieme fois
cette semaine, ce sera une bonne idee de changer les couleurs
de la cravate et du costume.
"
;
RULE GRAY
IF      SUIT=Grey AND
        SHIRT=White AND
        SHOES=Black
```

```
THEN    TIE=Red
CLS
DISPLAY"
Vous avez decide de vous habiller en gris.  Nous recommandons une
cravate grise pour continuer dans ces tons.  Une cravate marron est
aussi un bon choix.  Cependant, une touche de couleur vive au cou peut
faire beaucoup d'effet; une cravate rouge ou rose serait tres frappante.
Si vous utilisez ces couleurs pour la seconde or troisiéme fois cette
semaine, ce sera une bonne idee de changer les couleurs,de la cravate
et du costume.
"
;
RULE WRONG_SHOES_BLACK
IF      SUIT=Brown AND
        SHOES=Black
THEN    WRONG=yes
CLS
DISPLAY"
Vous avez decide de vous habiller en tons marron.  Nous recommandons des
chaussures marrons plutot que des chaussures noires pour continuer dans
tons d'habillement.
"
;
RULE WRONG_SHOES_BROWN
IF      SUIT=Blue OR
        SUIT=Gray AND
        SHOES=Brown
THEN    WRONG=yes
CLS
DISPLAY"
Nous recommandons des chaussures noires plutot que des chaussures marron
continuer dans ces tons d'habillement.
"
;
RULE STOP
IF WRONG=yes
THEN TIE=STOP
;
RULE TRSUIT1
IF SUIT_FRENCH=Marron
THEN SUIT=Brown
;
RULE TRSUIT2
IF SUIT_FRENCH=Bleu
THEN SUIT=Blue
;
RULE TRSUIT3
IF SUIT_FRENCH=Gris
THEN SUIT=Grey
;
RULE TRSHIRT1
IF SHIRT_FRENCH=Beige
THEN SHIRT=Tan
;
RULE TRSHIRT2
```

```
IF SHIRT_FRENCH=Bleu
THEN SHIRT=Blue
;
RULE TRSHIRT3
IF SHIRT_FRENCH=Blanc
THEN SHIRT=White
;
RULE TRSHOE1
IF SHOES_FRENCH=Noir
THEN SHOES=Black
;
RULE TRSHOE2
IF SHOES_FRENCH=Marron
THEN SHOES=Brown
;
ASK SUIT_FRENCH: "Quelle couleur de costume allez-vous porter?";
CHOICES SUIT_FRENCH: Marron, Bleu,Gris;

ASK SHIRT_FRENCH: "Quelle couleur de chemise avez-vous choisie?";
CHOICES SHIRT_FRENCH: Beige,Bleu,Blanc;

ASK SHOES_FRENCH: " Quelle couleur de chaussures avez-vous choisie?";
CHOICES SHOES_FRENCH: Marron,Noir;
```

TABLE 3 -- INDUCTION TABLES FOR THE VARIABLES OF THE FASHION KNOWLEDGE BASE

TABLE TO TRANSLATE THE SHIRT COLORS INTO FRENCH

SHIRT	SHIRT_FRENCH
Tan	Beige
Blue	Bleu
White	Blanc

TABLE TO TRANSLATE THE SUIT COLORS INTO FRENCH

SUIT	SUIT_FRENCH
Brown	Marron
Blue	Bleu
Grey	Gris

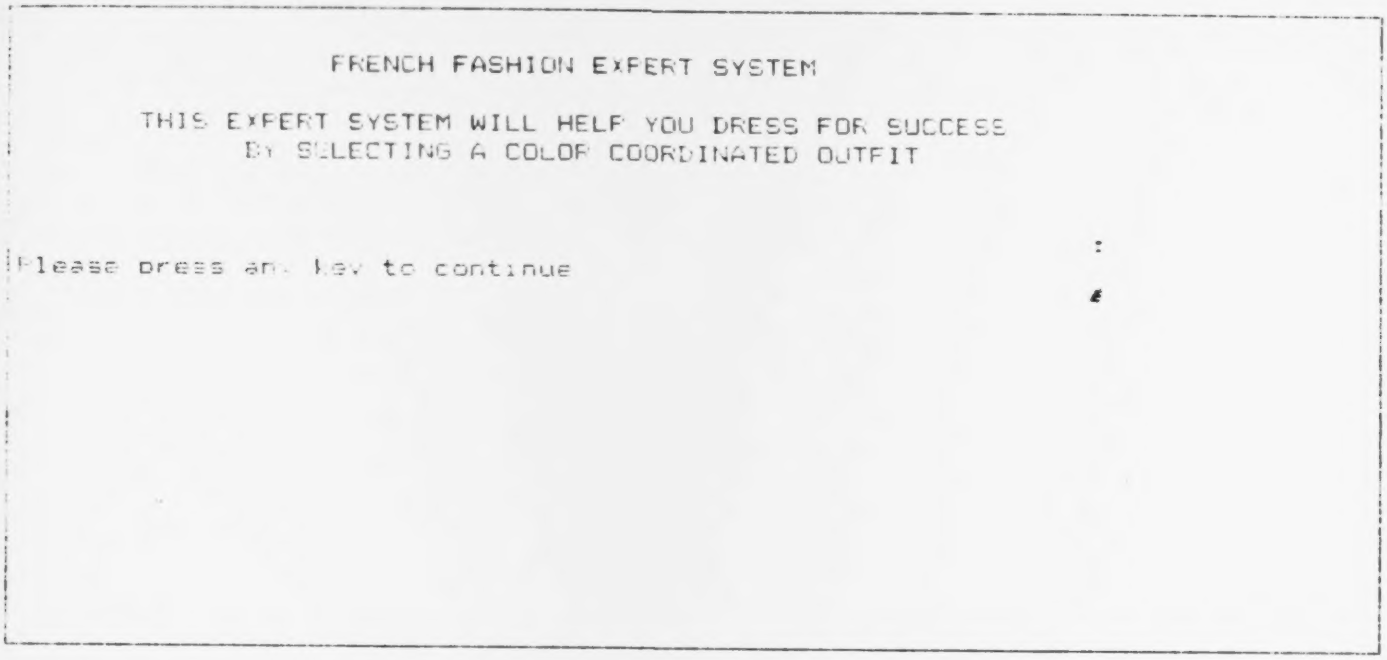
TABLE TO TRANSLATE THE SHOE COLORS INTO FRENCH

SHOES	SHOES_FRENCH
Black	Noir
Brown	Marron

FIGURE 1 -- FASHION EXPERT SYSTEM, ENGLISH VERSION SESSION

FIGURE 1A -- OPENING SCREEN
FIGURE 1B -- USER INTERACTION
FIGURE 1C -- EXPERT SYSTEM ADVICE

Figure 1A

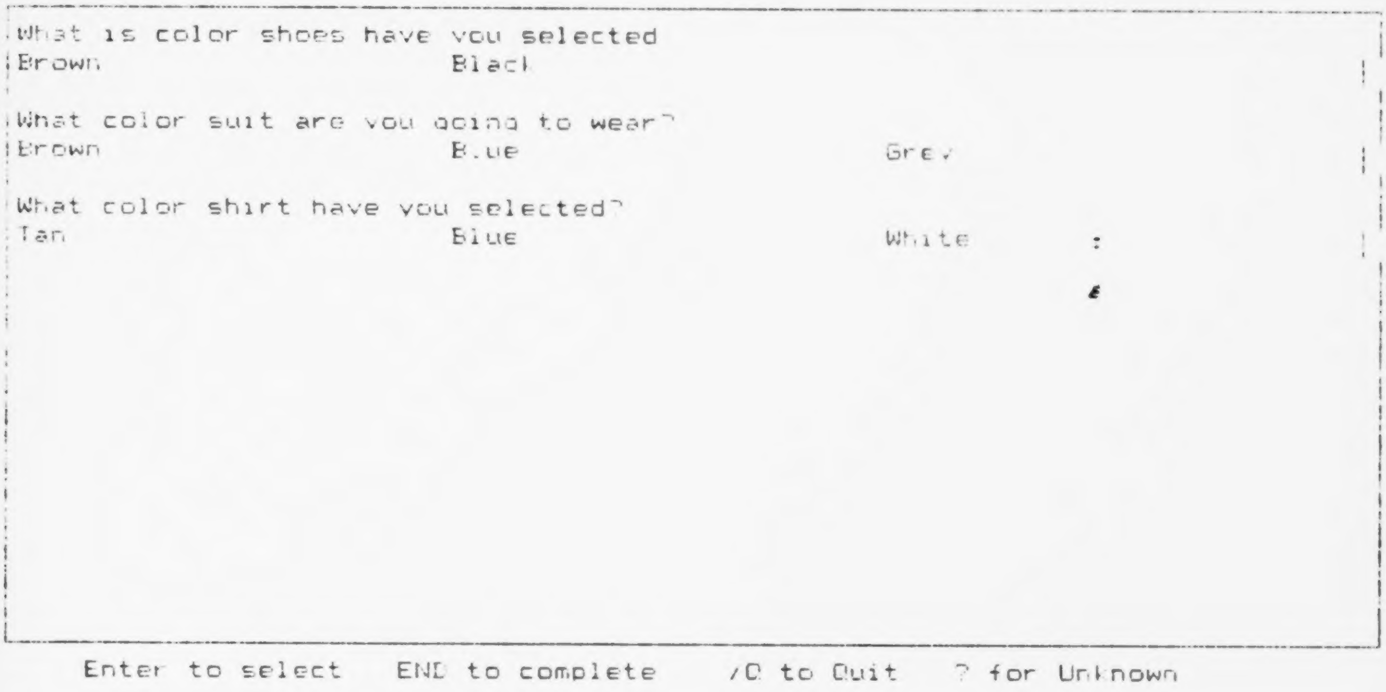


```
                  FRENCH FASHION EXPERT SYSTEM

          THIS EXPERT SYSTEM WILL HELP YOU DRESS FOR SUCCESS
               BY SELECTING A COLOR COORDINATED OUTFIT


Please press any key to continue
```

Figure 1 B



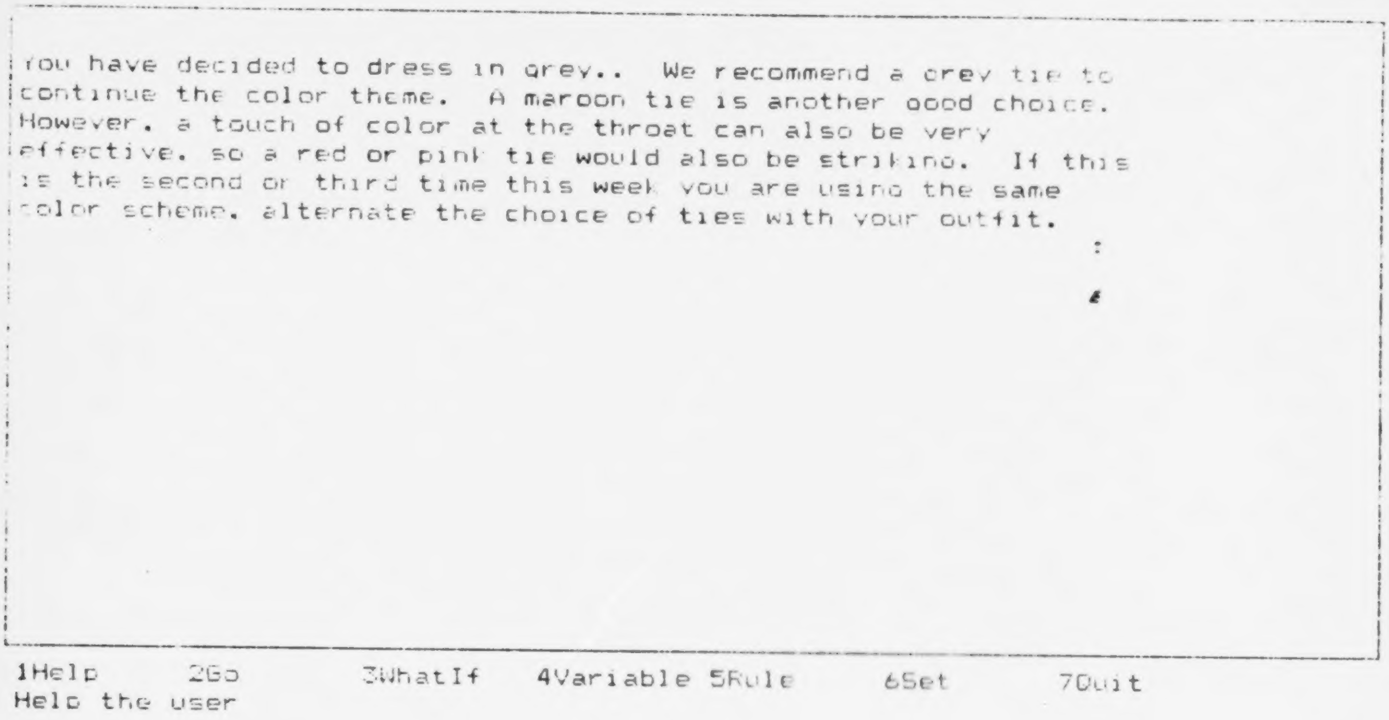
```
What is color shoes have you selected
Brown                         Black

What color suit are you going to wear?
Brown                         Blue                          Grey

What color shirt have you selected?
Tan                           Blue                          White

     Enter to select   END to complete    /Q to Quit   ? for Unknown
```

Figure 1C



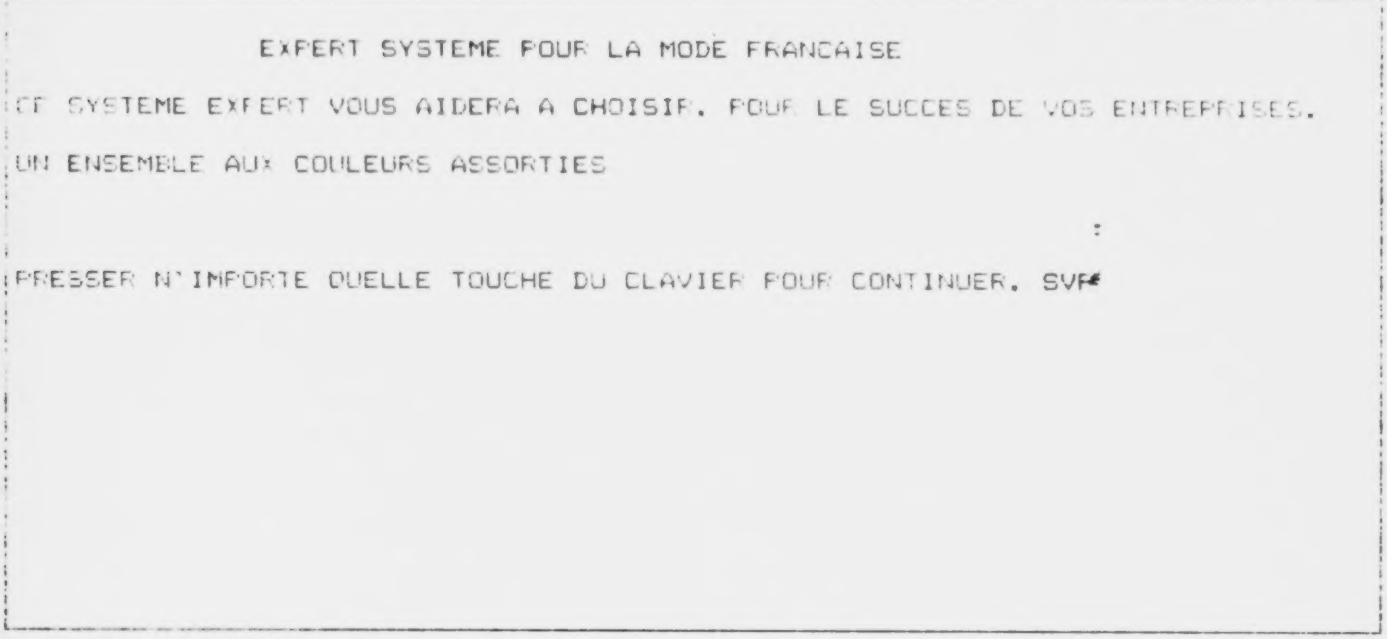
```
You have decided to dress in grey..  We recommend a grey tie to
continue the color theme.  A maroon tie is another good choice.
However, a touch of color at the throat can also be very
effective, so a red or pink tie would also be striking.  If this
is the second or third time this week you are using the same
color scheme, alternate the choice of ties with your outfit.

1Help     2Go        3WhatIf   4Variable 5Rule      6Set       7Quit
Help the user
```

FIGURE 2 - FRENCH VERSION OF FASHION EXPERT SYSTEM

FIGURE 2A -- OPENING SCREEN
FIGURE 2B -- USER INTERACTION
FIGURE 2C -- EXPERT SYSTEM ADVICE
FIGURE 2D -- DEVELOPMENT SCREEN SHOWING LAST RULES FIRED AND VARIABLE VALUES (NOTE HOW THE EXPERT SYSTEM USED THE TRANSLATION RULES TO GO FROM EXTERNAL FRENCH TO THE INTERNAL VARIABLE VALUES IN THE KNOWLEDGE BASE)

Figure 2A



```
               EXPERT SYSTEME POUR LA MODE FRANCAISE

CE SYSTEME EXPERT VOUS AIDERA A CHOISIR. POUR LE SUCCES DE VOS ENTREPRISES.

UN ENSEMBLE AUX COULEURS ASSORTIES

                                                                 :

PRESSER N'IMPORTE QUELLE TOUCHE DU CLAVIER POUR CONTINUER. SVP
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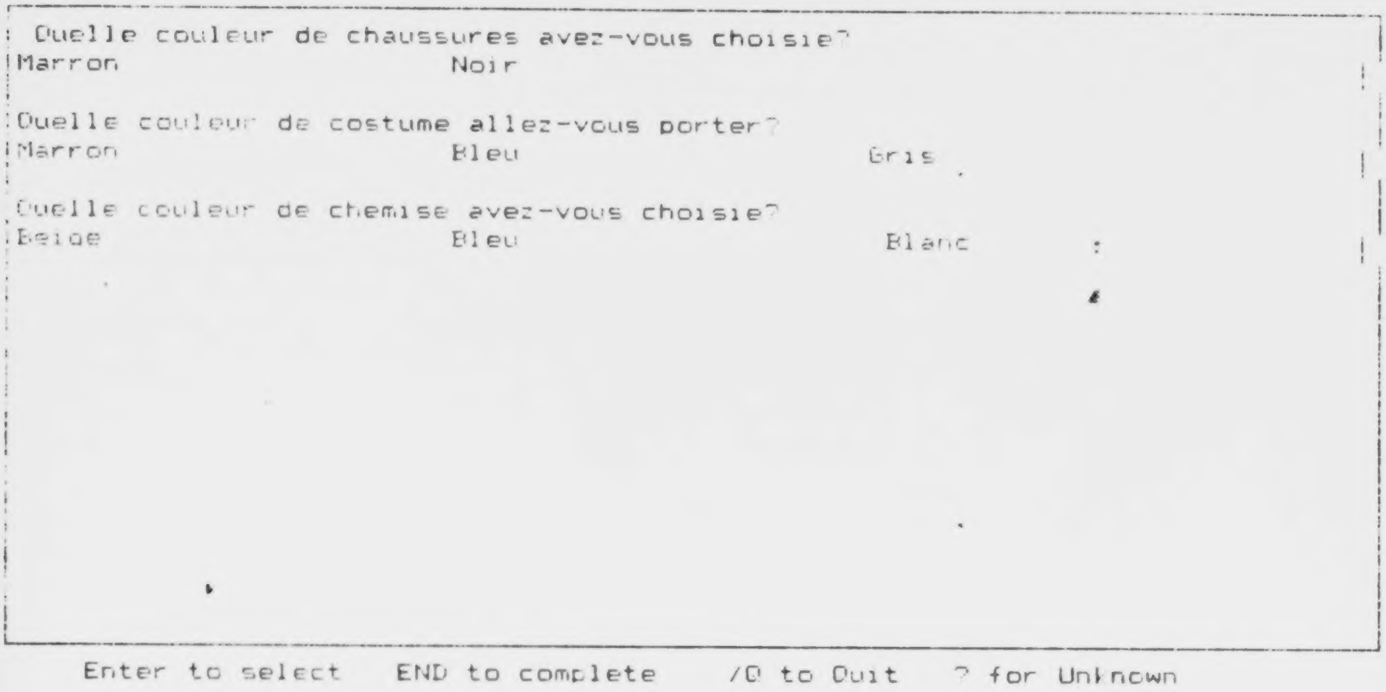
Figure 2B



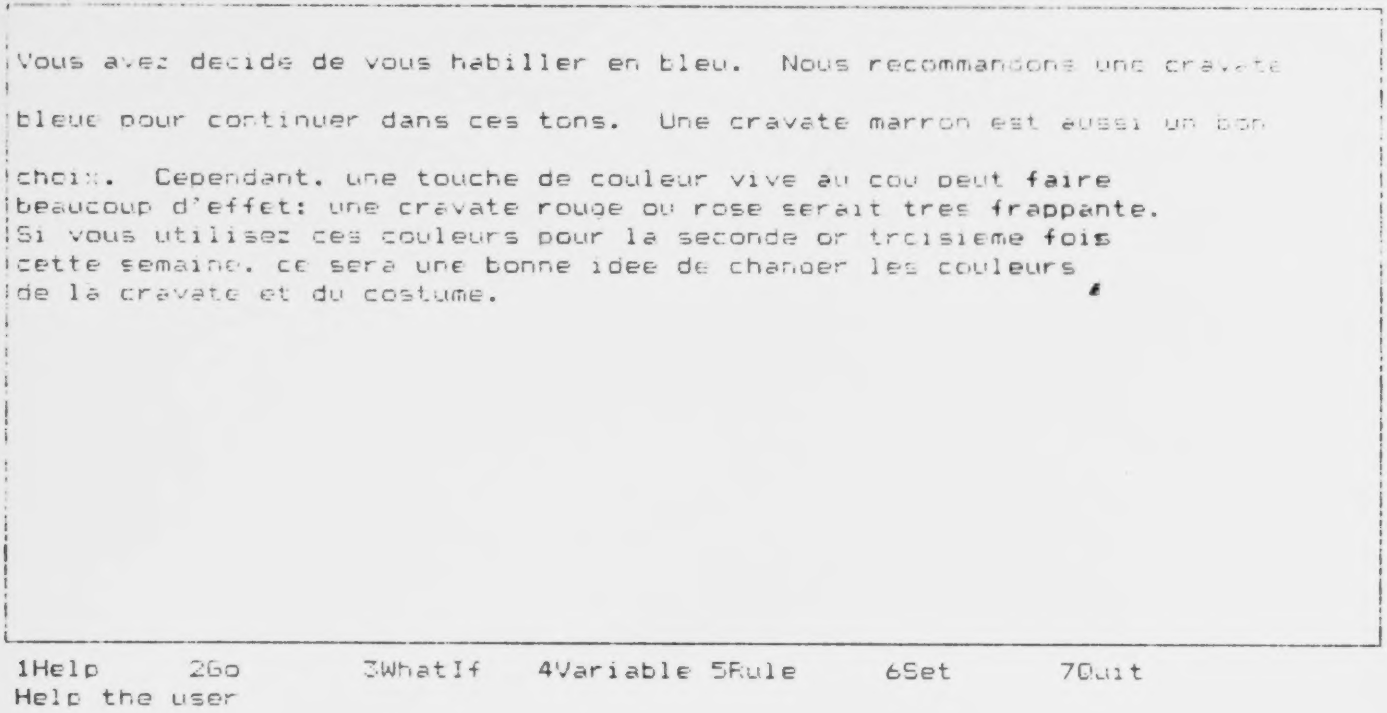
```
 Quelle couleur de chaussures avez-vous choisie?
Marron                    Noir

Quelle couleur de costume allez-vous porter?
Marron                    Bleu                      Gris

Quelle couleur de chemise avez-vous choisie?
Beige                     Bleu                      Blanc

    Enter to select   END to complete    /Q to Quit   ? for Unknown
```

Figure 2C



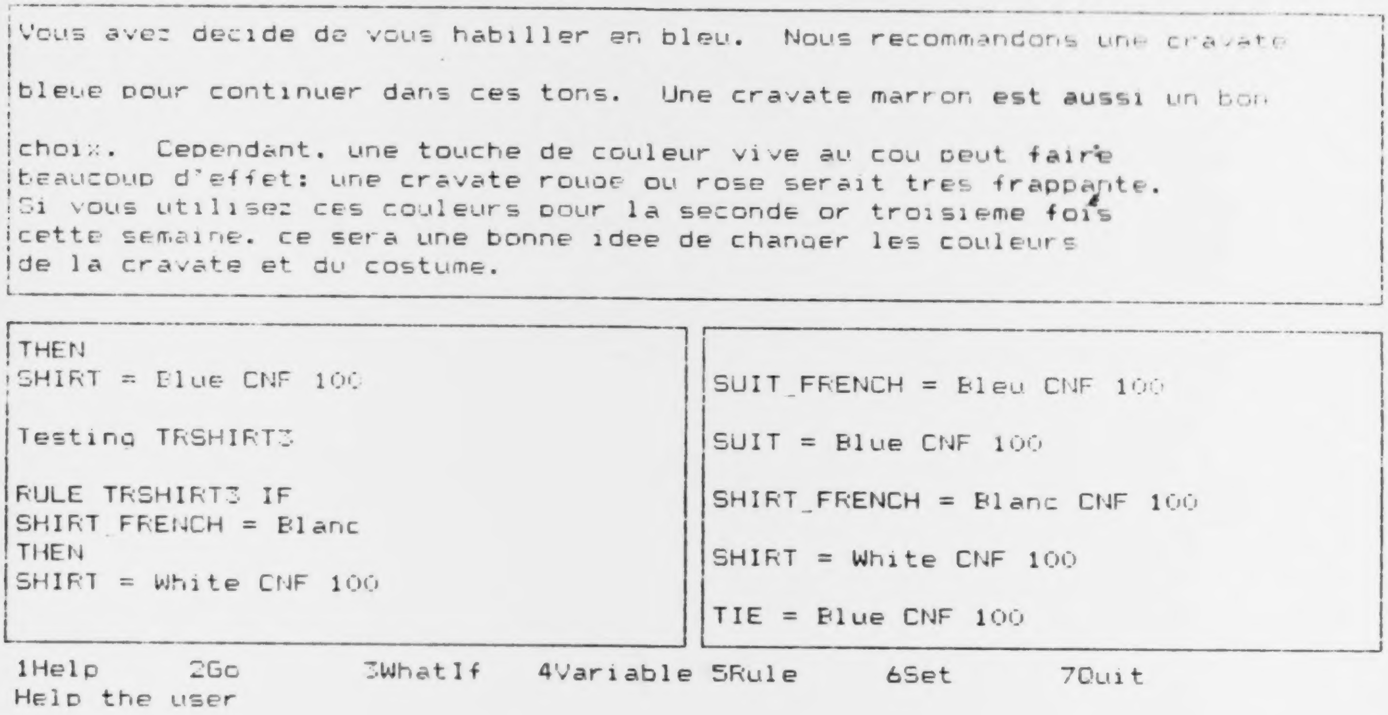
```
Vous avez decide de vous habiller en bleu.  Nous recommandons une cravate

bleue pour continuer dans ces tons.  Une cravate marron est aussi un bon

choix.  Cependant, une touche de couleur vive au cou peut faire
beaucoup d'effet: une cravate rouge ou rose serait tres frappante.
Si vous utilisez ces couleurs pour la seconde or troisieme fois
cette semaine, ce sera une bonne idee de changer les couleurs
de la cravate et du costume.

1Help      2Go         3WhatIf    4Variable 5Rule       6Set        7Quit
Help the user
```

Figure 2D



```
Vous avez decide de vous habiller en bleu.  Nous recommandons une cravate

bleue pour continuer dans ces tons.  Une cravate marron est aussi un bon

choix.  Cependant. une touche de couleur vive au cou peut faire
beaucoup d'effet: une cravate rouge ou rose serait tres frappante.
Si vous utilisez ces couleurs pour la seconde or troisieme fois
cette semaine. ce sera une bonne idee de changer les couleurs
de la cravate et du costume.
```

```
THEN
SHIRT = Blue CNF 100

Testing TRSHIRT3

RULE TRSHIRT3 IF
SHIRT_FRENCH = Blanc
THEN
SHIRT = White CNF 100
```

```

SUIT_FRENCH = Bleu CNF 100

SUIT = Blue CNF 100

SHIRT_FRENCH = Blanc CNF 100

SHIRT = White CNF 100

TIE = Blue CNF 100
```

```
1Help     2Go       3WhatIf   4Variable 5Rule     6Set      7Quit
Help the user
```

DIAL - [illegible] [illegible]

Gathering International Competitive Intelligence via Online Data Retrieval in the International Marketing Class

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Gathering International Competitive Intelligence via Online Data Retrieval in the International Marketing Class

ABSTRACT

The challenge facing US business schools is to produce executives capable of strategic planning in global market environments. As competitive intelligence is the raw material of strategic planning, these executives must be well versed in techniques for acquiring and analyzing such information. This paper describes an assignment to improve students' abilities to use electronic online data retrieval techniques to compile information on overseas markets and competitors. This assignment is designed for use in student projects in an International Marketing course.

INTRODUCTION

Online data retrieval techniques have not yet realized their full potential within the business curriculum. They have a strong contribution to make in the International Marketing class in that they provide timely, comprehensive access to information on world markets. This paper; 1) discusses the value of these techniques, 2) describes an assignment for this class which uses them, and 3) addresses the logistical problems encountered in this assignment.

I. ONLINE COMPETITIVE INTELLIGENCE IN GLOBAL STRATEGIC PLANNING

The challenge facing US businesses in the global marketplace is obvious. We must regain/retain our competitiveness in our own markets and those of our trading partners. Many of the responses to this challenge are also obvious. Increased quality through automation, employee relations improvements and quality assurance techniques have important roles to play. So does increased cultural and linguistic knowledge of the countries with which we trade. It is also important that we improve our abilities to gather competitive intelligence about foreign markets for use in strategic decision making.

Competitive intelligence is information on markets and their characteristics as well as competitors, their capabilities, philosophies, strategies and competitive practices. Gathering and assessing competitive intelligence is a vital part of any business decision that is sensitive to environmental or competitive forces. (Miller 1987) It is a particularly vital in international strategic decisions due to increases in cost and risk. This is especially true in countries where a firm lacks direct experience.

Electronic online data retrieval is a valuable tool for gathering competitive intelligence. Through information services such as DIALOG, users have access to a large number of distinct databases compiled and maintained by various information suppliers. The databases are updated frequently to provide timely information. They index a wide variety of sources to provide breadth of coverage. Many of them can search several years worth of data to provide depth of coverage. Several business databases cover worldwide trade literature that is difficult to find in the US. Moreover, many of these publications are not indexed at all in print form. (Daniels 1984; O'Leary 1986; Spickard 1987)

Despite this potential, these tools have not been widely integrated into the business curriculum. Teaching of microcomputer applications has concentrated on data analysis tools at the expense of data collection tools. (Miller 1985; Doney and Ross 1987; Kurtz and Boone 1987) As globally conscious strategic planning increases in importance, it is imperative that we integrate these tools into our classrooms.

This need is particularly acute in the International Marketing class. If students are to evaluate foreign markets effectively, it is imperative that they have access to as wide a range of information as possible. They should also be trained to use the tools which can gather information of this scope. Further, they should not be limited to the printed resources normally available in US universities, but should become familiar with trade literature from around the world.

Online retrieval of competitive intelligence can help meet all these conditions. It allows students access to information not otherwise available, at relatively little expense of time or money. Moreover, it can improve the quality of information brought to bear on student reports dramatically. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the integration of online data retrieval assignments into the International Marketing class.

II. HARDWARE AND SOFTWARE REQUIREMENTS

The hardware requirements for online data retrieval assignments are simple. One needs a computer or computer terminal, a disk storage device (hard or floppy), and a modem. Virtually all major types of microcomputers offer these capabilities at reasonable cost. An IBM compatible system, with floppy disk storage, dot matrix printer and 2400 baud modem can be purchased for less than $1,000. However, most existing microcomputer systems lack only the modem to meet this basic configuration requirement. Modems which operate at 2400 baud cost from $169 to $500. (The baud rate measures the speed of telecommunications transfer, with the higher baud number meaning a faster transfer rate. While not the fastest available, the 2400 baud rate is widely supported and offers the best current speed/price combination.)

To operate this telecommunications system, one also needs communications software to control the modem and manage the process of online information transfer. This software is available from several sources at a range of costs. Stand alone communications packages such as CROSSTALK, or SMARTCOM range from $100 to $160. Shareware packages such as PROCOMM are obtainable from local electronic bulletin boards. They allow the user to sample the software and, on approval, remit a requested price (around $50) to the authors. Communications capabilities are built into some integrated software packages such as ENABLE and FRAMEWORK. Finally, several providers of online information services offer their own communications software. For example, the service described in this paper, DIALOG, offers DIALOGLINK for $125-150.

For this assignment, communications software must meet two performance criteria. First, it must be able to handle logon procedures for each of the information services used while maintaining confidentiality of the user's account number and password. Second, it must allow capture and storage of all text displayed on the screen to allow data to be extracted and saved simultaneously. All of the packages mentioned above foreign market. Whenever possible, the products and countries selected are relevant to an existing regional business. That is, when possible, students are evaluating real foreign market opportunities for real firms. This enhances the value of the project, reenforces the applicability of the exercise and creates interaction between students and potential employers.

The larger assignment is divided into three distinct parts; a cultural analysis, an economic analysis, and a product/market evaluation. The due dates are spread through the semester to distribute students' research time and to provide timely evaluation and feedback. Each section requires extensive secondary research in various government and reference sources. Taken together, the segments produce a broad based assessment of a market opportunity within the country selected.

Each section of the report includes an online data retrieval assignment. Figure 1 contains selected topics from each section and the databases used for gathering relevant information. Figure 2 contains summary descriptions of the databases identified in Figure 1.

The educational objectives of the online data retrieval exercises are; 1) to increase students' awareness of the range of information available to them electronically, and 2) to improve their ability to gather and apply this information to marketing decisions. The project pursues the first objective through an introductory lecture session on DIALOG and the sources of information it contains. It also exposes students to several types of information from many different databases through the course of the semester.

The second objective, improved skill at information gathering and application is more difficult. Here, students must learn to select appropriate databases, devise fruitful search strategies, and extract meaningful information from the data they generate. The project pursues this objective by gradually increasing student responsibility for online data retrieval throughout the term. In initial assignments, the instructor performs most of these tasks in sessions with each of the student groups. In subsequent exercises, students are progressively more responsible for

FIGURE 1: SELECTED PROJECT TOPICS AND CORRESPONDING DATABASES

PROJECT COMPONENT AND TOPICS	SAMPLE DATABASES SEARCHED
I. Cultural Component A. Geographic setting B. Summary of relevant history C. Significant current issues D. Social institutions E. Religious system and values F. Living conditions and lifestyles G. Social behavioral customs visitors should observe	1. PTS F&S Index 2. National Newspaper Index
II. Economic Component A. Population characteristics B. Economic statistics 1. GDP overall and per capita 2. personal income 3. distribution of wealth 4. foreign trade statistics C. Level of technology D. Marketing infrastructure 1. distribution/transportation system 2. mass communication system; media availability 3. consumer marketing practices E. Patterns of consumer/industrial buying	1. PTS International Forecasts 2. PTS PROMT 3. BIS Infomat World Business 4. ABI Inform
III. Product/Market Evaluation A. Product/market description 1. sales levels and trends 2. competing products and market shares 3. performance of imports 4. strategies of competitors B. Market entry strategy 1. target market 2. marketing mix C. Pro forma statements D. List of potential customers/agents/JV partners	1. PTS MARS 2. PTS PROMT 3. PTS International Forecasts 4. D&B International Dun's Market Identifiers 5. Foreign Trade and Economic Abstracts

FIGURE 2: DESCRIPTIONS OF DATABASES CITED IN FIGURE 1

ABI INFORM

Extensive summaries of articles from top business and management journals - business practices, corporate strategies and trends

BIS INFOMAT WORLD BUSINESS

Concise abstracts of international business news articles taken from over 500 business newspapers and journals, translated into English from 10 languages

D&B INTERNATIONAL MARKET IDENTIFIERS

Directory listings, sales volume, corporate data, and references to companies for non-U.S. private and public companies from 133 countries - international trade and industry prospects

FOREIGN TRADE AND ECONOMIC ABSTRACTS

Summaries of literature in all areas of international economic sciences - determining industries, distribution channels

NATIONAL NEWSPAPER INDEX

Front page to back page indexing of articles from the *Christian Science Monitor*, the *Los Angeles Times*, *The New York Times*, *The Wall Street Journal*, and *The Washington Post* - general reference questions and current events

PTS F&S INDEXES

Brief descriptive annotations of articles and publications, covering U.S. and international company, product and industry information - company and industry tracking

PTS INTERNATIONAL FORECASTS

Summaries of published forecasts with historical data for the world, excluding U.S., covering general economics, all industries, products, end-use data - strategic planning for international development

PTS MARS

Textual and statistical information on the marketing and advertising of consumer goods and services - market and advertising research, competitive intelligence

PTS PROMT

Primary source of information on product introductions, market share, corporate directions and ventures, and companies in every industry, containing detailed summaries of articles from trade and industry sources - market and strategic planning, tracking new technologies and products

Source: "DIALOG Database Descriptions", DIALOG Information Services, 1986.

perform these necessary tasks. However, this list is not exhaustive, and users may have telecommunications requirements beyond the bounds of this assignment (uploading and downloading program and data files, for example). Faculty should consider these factors in selecting communications software.

The final component in this system is a subscription to an online information service. Several services are available which contain information of value to international marketers. Among them are the SOURCE, GENIE and COMPUSERVE, which are aimed at consumers but offer some business information as well. Services aimed primarily at the business user include Control Data, Interactive Market Systems, Mead, Data-Star and Pergamon Infoline. The service chosen for this assignment is DIALOG information services, and specifically the DIALOG Classroom Instruction Program. (Miller 1987, 63-69)

There are three reasons for this choice. First, the DIALOG system contains over 200 individual data bases, covering a variety of subject areas and virtually the entire world among them. Thus it allows the user to select from several sources in the search for relevant information. Second, this breadth offers students significant transferability of the skills learned in this assignment to other courses and projects. Third, through the Classroom Instruction Program, DIALOG offers access to most of its databases at a very reasonable price, $15.00 per connect hour. This rate compares with normal hourly rates of $40 to $150 and additional charges for each record extracted. This redueced rate applies only to instructional applications and is designed to familiarize students with the relevance of DIALOG's resources for their business decisions.

III. STRUCTURE OF THE ASSIGNMENT

The online data retrieval assignments described here are part of a larger group research project in the International Marketing class. In the project, groups of four to six students are charged with assessing the market for a given product in a specific performing the selection, search and application tasks. They may consult supporting reference materials and the instructor as needed for help with these responsibilities. While these exercises do not produce complete mastery of online data retrieval skills, they do provide students a strong foundation of knowledge and operational skill upon which to build.

IV. LOGISTICS

There are several logistic problems associated with this type of exercise, as well as a variety of options to overcome them. First, these assignments are voracious in their consumption of faculty time. Instructors must work with each group to help them focus their research on the specific product/market they are evaluating. Especially in the early sessions, when students lack both knowledge and confidence, the time expended on advising, coaxing and demonstrating is extensive. To ease this burden, faculty may use; 1) graduate assistants trained in search techniques, 2) students from previous classes who have performed the exercise, and/or 3) library personnel well versed in search procedures. Instructors may also videotape orientation and instruction sessions, especially for the first exercises, which are simpler and more standardized than later ones.

A second logistic problem is achieving the proper balance between access to searching systems and control over their use. Students should be encouraged to conduct searches as often as they wish. However, they should not be given direct, independent access to the institution's account number and password. Uncontrolled access to online sources can produce substantial telecommunications charges for which no group is willing to pay. This problem can be avoided by; 1) controlling access to the communications software diskette, upon which the account number and password are stored, 2) changing the password(s) for each account on a frequent, regular basis, and 3) requiring faculty/staff presence and oversight for each search conducted by students. While these solutions consume additional faculty/staff time, they do avoid uncontrolled telecommunications costs.

A third logistic problem is disk and file management. Each search for each group produces at least one disk file. With eight groups the total will reach 32 to 40 files per section. Moreover, students must print all files to be able to assimilate them into their analysis and append them to their reports. Unless properly managed, these requirements create a cascade of floppies and paper sufficient to daunt the most intrepid instructor. One way to overcome these problems is to create one data disk for each group that remains in the possession of the instructor when not in use by students. Each data diskette should be a formatted, bootable system disk. It should also contain "Print" and "Diskcopy" utilities and an "autoexec.bat" file which illustrates the proper format for using them. Figure 3 contains a copy of the initial screen of a diskette configured in this way. When a search file is saved to this diskette, students have access to all the commands needed to boot the system, print the file, display it on the monitor and/or produce their own copy of the diskette. Upon completion of these tasks, they return the diskette to the instructor, who may delete files that have been printed to make room for subsequent search files.

The final logistic problem is accounting. Who should pay for the searches, How much should they pay and who should manage the records? Ideally universities should bear these expenses as a necessary cost of teaching research techniques in the information age. However, the current economics of higher education render this solution unlikely. At most institutions, students will pay for the searches. They could do so on a user fee basis, paying the exact costs of the searches performed. However, since billing follows the search by several days, problems of collecting and bookkeeping arise. A better approach is to collect a standard course fee from students at the beginning of each semester, preferably as part of the normal fee payment procedure. If this approach is taken, instructors should; 1) set the fee high enough that all telecommunications, diskette and paper costs are covered and 2) insure that any surplus funds are available to purchase reference materials for the databases used. This will enhance the learning potential of the exercises. For the assignments in this

FIGURE 3: INITIAL SCREEN OF STUDENT DATA DISKETTE

```
A>dir

 Volume in drive A has no label
 Directory of  A:\

COMMAND  COM    23791  12-30-85  12:00p
PRINT    COM     8976  12-30-85  12:00p
DISKCOPY COM     6224  12-30-85  12:00p
AUTOEXEC BAT      283   1-01-80  12:04a
FRACOSMT LOG    50059   2-07-88  12:15a
FRANCNEW LOG    24951   2-12-88  12:39a
        6 File(s)    199680 bytes free

A>echo off
--
To print a file, type;  PRINT filename.ext   Ex. PRINT COMMAND.COM
--
To see a file on the screen, type;  TYPE filename.ext  Ex. TYPE COMMAND.COM
--
To copy this disk, place a balnk disk in drive B and type;
DISKCOPY A: B:

A>
```

class, a fee of $5 per student has been sufficient to achieve these objectives.

Though these problems can be substantial, proper approaches will minimize their effects. In any event, they are more than offset by the additional skills and knowledge they provide to students.

In summary, electronic gathering of competitive intelligence is an important part of international marketing strategy planning. It should be incorporated into international marketing courses. The DIALOG Classroom Information Program offers a comprehensive, low cost opportunity to add search assignments to this course. The hardware and software requirements are modest. Though there are logistic problems they are manageable and offset by substantial benefits to students. We should continue to pursue this opportunity.

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CULTURE, THE COMPUTER AND INTERACTIVE VIDEO

by

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CULTURE, THE COMPUTER AND INTERACTIVE VIDEO

PREPARED BY RON CERE, WILLIAM CLINE, AND ANA MCCOY, APRIL 6, 1998

CROSS CULTURAL OBJECTIVES

1) Help Americans become aware of cultural differences and similarities between them and Spanish-speakers, especially with regard to family structure and relationships so they can better understand and respond to situations which deal with these cultural considerations.

2) Provide Americans with the means to contrast the economic realities of the U.S. and Spain so that they can recognize and deal with some of the problems they may confront and which may create difficulties.

3) Help Americans become familiar with differences in perceptions and attitudes by Americans and Spaniards regarding relationships between the sexes.

4) Help Americans gain a knowledge of the differences in social structure between the U.S. and Spain, especially as they concern status and authority.

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ADVANTAGES OF INTERACTIVE VIDEO DISK COMPUTER ASSISTED INSTRUCTION

PREPARED BY RON CERE, WILLIAM CLINE, AND ANA MCCOY, APRIL 6, 1988

1) Presentation of key components of Hispanic cultures, such as:
   - --family relationships
   - --economic contrasts
   - --relationships between the sexes
   - --social status and authority

2) Visually reinforced authenticity:
   - --clear presentation of non-verbal behavior and of language
   - --realism in a complete communicative situation
   - --full-color visual support of cultural characteristics
   - --validation of real-world use of target language and cultural norms

3) High level of engagement with the lesson content:
   - --computer-assisted interactivity, promoting active viewing and a high level of student attention to the content of the units
   - --many types of interaction possible, including active student control over freeze, repetition, fast-forward, jump to any segment selected and windows for reference materials
   - --a flexible learning environment responsive to the performance of individual students

4) Varied lesson design:
   - --many computer- and videodisk-enhanced features, such as graphics overlays, windowing, icons, animation, varied speeds, audio on/off, and rapid video access
   - --many activities possible, including observations, analysis, prediction, reaction, and role play
   - --variety in settings and cultural activities presented
   - --powerful answer analysis with many branching options

5) Ease of evaluation:
   - --complete record keeping, including individual student performance, data on group performance on various lesson components, and records of where a student stops to permit returning to the same location

CULTURE VIDEO AND COMPUTERS

The need of Americans for cross-cultural awareness has been evident for some time and there is no need to engage here in further discussion of this topic. To provide such awareness, the Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies program of Eastern Michigan University proposed a project to the U.S. Department of Education under Title VI of the Higher Education Act for International Studies and Foreign Language Programs. The project was funded in July of 1987. An important part of the project was the design of cross-cultural instructional materials for use in the first year Spanish language classes. These materials make use of computer controlled video disk technology.

The primary aim of this presentation is to report on the work done to date on this project. We will first give an overview of the objectives, components, design and procedures used to develop these computer-controlled videodisk instructional materials. We will then present a sample of these materials and will discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the particular hardware and software configurations being used. This presentation will be supplemented by the distribution of relevant handouts.

The first step we undertook in this project was to state specific cultural objectives. This was not too difficult because we had already set forth cultural goals for a Spanish language manual that we had developed two years earlier and that we had been using for the first-year Spanish program at Eastern Michigan University (EMU). This manual supported and expanded an existing Spanish language video tape series. Produced by BBC

The objectives were based, in part, on the ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines established to ascertain the specific level of student awareness of, and sensitivity to, cultural differences as they emerge in Hispanic contexts. They also encompassed a variety of subjects related to the culture of Spain. After careful scrutiny of these topics, we selected family relationships, economic contrasts, relationships between the sexes, and social status and authority, and wrote the objectives for each one. These goals appear on handout No. 1 and are as follows:

1) Help Americans become aware of cultural differences and similarities between them and Spanish-speakers, especially with regard to family structure and relationships so they can better understand and respond to situations which deal with these cultural considerations.

2) Provide Americans with the means to contrast the economic realities of the U.S. and Spain so that they can recognize and deal with some of the problems they may confront and which may create difficulties.

3) Help Americans become familiar with differences in perceptions and attitudes by Americans and Spaniards regarding relationships between the sexes.

4) Help Americans gain a knowledge of the differences in social structure between the U.S. and Spain, especially as they concern status and authority.

All four objectives are thematically cross-cultural. Pedagogically, they are student-centered in that they deal with situations that students are likely to encounter in their interactions within the Spanish culture. They were formulated this way, because we wanted students to actively participate in the learning process.

Once we completed this phase, the next was program design. We needed a learning system that would most effectively realize the stated objectives and, at the same time, motivate and maintain student interest. Having already used computers and videotapes and having become familiar with their capabilities for foreign language and cultural learning, we chose computer-controlled videodisk technology to develop the instructional materials. We chose this technology because we believed that these high-tech produced materials would represent a significant improvement over existing ones since they would combine, as handout No. 2 indicates, the following desirable features:

1) Presentation of key components of Hispanic cultures.

2) Visually reinforced authenticity.

3) High level of engagement with the lesson content.

4) Varied lesson design.

5) Ease of evaluation.

The benefits that would accrue to students using the materials would also be numerous and significant:

1) Richer, multidimensional awareness of the target culture.

2) Increased intercultural competence.

3) Increased communicative competence.

4) Self-paced progress in understanding of the target culture.

The benefits that would accrue to teachers using the materials would also be significant:

1) Presentation of authentic, full-color materials on key components of Hispanic culture.

2) Increased student interest for the study of culture and its complexities.

3) Availability of well-structured, flexible lessons that accomodate variations in student performance and proficiency.

With this in mind, we proceeded with the next two steps: the development of written and visual materials and their subsequent transformation into computer-controlled video-disk programs.

The actual preparation of cross-cultural written and visual materials was no small task. First, we had to reexamine the general instructional objectives of each unit. We had to analyze the nature and scope of these goals and we had to consider how their projected outcomes could be realized instructionally. Next, we had to decide which cultural items and information to be included to support the main theme and we had to ascertain how these elements and data were to be treated and presented. We also needed to decide what kinds of learning activities had to be integrated into each program to stimulate and maintain student interest and we needed to determine which lexical and grammatical items were to be used to facilitate participant understanding and interaction. Finally, we had to locate, collect, select and catalogue the images that would best correspond to the visual requirements of each program to make the latter more realistic and meaningful. We carried out much of this work on storyboards or flowcharts, of which you have an example in your hands.

The flowcharts represent the computer and instructional design of the cultural units. They point out the main theme and method used to develop each segment of the program as well as the sequence of steps that are involved in bringing the latter to conclusion.

The result, which you will see in a minute, was a program with narrative segments interspersed with interactive exercises in which students had to make decisions about behavior appropriate to the particular cultural situation.

In an ideal world, all the visuals to be used in the program would have already been in hand as the writing took place. The sad reality was that only a small number of visuals were available to us. The addition of new visuals after the writing was finished has often required rewriting some of the narrative.

Let us show you how the program runs. Unfortunately, the visuals have not yet been integrated.

INSTRUCTIONAL/LEARNING ADVANTAGES OF VIDEODISK TECHNOLOGY

EMU proposes to improve undergraduate instruction of the foreign-language culture by developing instructional materials based on the strengths of interactive computer-controlled videodisk technology. EMU has already developed print materials that are used in conjunction with an existing video series designed for first-year Spanish classes. We now intend to develop video-based culture units to further improve the students' awareness and appreciation of Hispanic cultures.

The proposed materials represent a significant improvement over existing materials because they will combine many desirable features:

**Presentation of key components of Hispanic cultures, such as:
 --family relationships
 --economic contrasts
 --relationships between the sexes
 --social status and authority

**Visually reinforced authenticity:
 --clear presentation of non-verbal behavior and of language
 --realism in a complete communicative situation
 --full-color visual support of cultural characteristics
 --validation of real-world use of target language and cultural norms

**High level of engagement with the lesson content:
 --computer-assisted interactivity, promoting active viewing and a high level of student attention to the content of the units
 --many types of interaction possible, including active student control over freeze, repetition, fast-forward, jump to any segment selected, and windows for reference materials
 --a flexible learning environment responsive to the performance of individual students

**Varied lesson design:
 --many computer- and videodisk-enhanced features, such as graphics overlays, windowing, icons, animation, varied speeds, audio on/off, and rapid video access;
 --many activities possible, including observation, analysis, prediction, reaction, and role play
 --variety in settings and cultural activities presented
 --powerful answer analysis with many branching options

**Ease of evaluation:
 --complete record keeping, including individual student performance, data on group performance on various lesson components, and records of where a student stops to permit returning to the same location

The benefits that will accrue to students using the materials will be numerous and significant:

**Richer, multidimensional awareness of the target culture
 --knowledge of characteristic behaviors, values, and norms

--sensitivity to the functionality of different behaviors and values

--practice in interpreting paralinguistic cues (gestures, proximity, etc.)

--greater awareness of the implications of sociolinguistic variations (registers, dialects)

**Increased intercultural competence

--production of culturally appropriate behavior

--increased comprehension of cultural contrasts, potential for conflict, and possible strategies for resolution

--increased confidence in ability to function in a target language context

**Increased communicative competence

--awareness of the cultural environment of linguistic behavior

**Self-paced progress in understanding of the target culture

The benefits that will accrue to teachers using the materials will also be significant:

**Presentation of authentic, full-color materials on key components of Hispanic culture

**Increased student enthusiasm for the study of culture and its complexities

**Availability of well-structured, flexible lessons that accomodate variations in student performance and proficiency

Production of the proposed materials will require the services of the development team which has already produced print materials to accompany the video series used in beginning Spanish at EMU. The development effort will use the half-time employment of Drs. Ronald Cere, William Cline, and Ana McCoy during the Fall and Winter semesters of 1987-88 and again in 1988-89. Initial use of pilot versions of some of the materials will begin in Winter 1988, with revision, continued development, and continued formative and summative evaluation proceeding in 1988-89.

Prepared by: Ron Cere
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April 7, 1988

LAUNCHING A PROGRAM IN INTERNATIONAL ENGINEERING

by

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Launching a Program in International Engineering

What do a Kafka researcher and an aerospace engineer have in common? At the University of Rhode Island the answer is a love of the German language, a strong belief that the American educational system must be responsive to national needs, and that traditionally disparate groups in the university structure can and should collaborate. Though these affinities might have lead only to lofty platitudes some years ago, the changing world economy and the new international competitiveness have provided the framework within which cooperation between two such educators is now not only possible but necessary. America leads the world with technological expertise, but falls short when it attempts to communicate its knowledge in the world marketplace. The time has come for the humanist and the technologist to join forces and provide the next generation of students with the tools necessary for productive and rewarding careers in the global workplace.

The aerospace engineer mentioned above is the Dean of the College of Engineering at the University of Rhode Island and the Kafka researcher is both Professor of German and Associate Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences (as well as the author of these pages). The initially casual conversations between these two parties lead to discussions with others in the university community, and to the realization that action would be both appropriate and possible. It was determined that there were several URI engineering faculty with considerable exposure to colleagues and research abroad, and who furthermore strongly believed that we should be training our engineers in foreign languages and intercultural communication. A joint foreign language and engineering committee was commissioned with the task of determining: 1) whether there is tangible evidence that it is desirable for technologists to learn a second language, 2) why engineers avoid foreign language study, 3) how engineers might be encouraged to study languages, and 4) whether one might be able to find support, financial and otherwise, from educational, governmental, and private sources for the creation of a program to address this issue. The following is a summary of this group's findings and an outline of the program which has been designed at the University of Rhode Island in response to these findings.

Why should American engineers be encouraged to study other languages and cultures? The answer to this question rests in the same evidence cited by those who have argued for the internationalization of American business schools. If we are to overcome our failure to compete successfully in the global marketplace, our professionals must be prepared to meet and deal effectively with counterparts from other cultures and with market conditions throughout the world. Several institutions of higher learning have acted upon the implications of this fact for the marketing expert, the manufacturer, and manager by creating various international business programs. But now it is time to do the same for our engineering programs; we must recognize that more often than not, it is the individual with the technical expertise who is called upon to interact with a counterpart abroad; indeed, the manager or sales representative or manufacturer is often himself a graduate engineer. It is ironic and shortsighted that the American engineer, if judged by his/her undergraduate curriculum, is precisely the person with the least awareness of other cultures and languages.

Why is foreign language study not a part of American engineering education? The answer to this question lies in tradition, in the increasing complexity of modern technology, and in the amount of time allotted to the attainment of an undergraduate degree. Few institutions of higher learning demand high school language courses for admission to their engineering programs, and even fewer require foreign language study in the undergraduate curriculum. The stringent demands of the subject area result in a heavy professional courseload and leave practically no room for elective subjects. Although a small number of engineering programs encourage study abroad, no clear path has emerged for internationalizing that curriculum. Furthermore, with the job market relatively strong, most students are not in search of additional coursework which might provide a competitive edge. Why should one bother with languages and the liberal arts, which are, after all, the subjects left over for those who cannot hack it in the scientific and technical fields?

Is there a solution to this educational dilemma? After wrestling with the apparent reality that most engineering students are not likely to be concerned with the issue and that there is no room for meaningful change within the current curricular format, the Rhode Island committee began to look at more basic change. By extending the undergraduate program one year, it would be possible to incorporate rigorous foreign language and intercultural study as well as an internship abroad into the engineering program, with no sacrifice to the technical subjects. Even though some of our committee doubted that students would opt for this kind of opportunity if an extra year would be required, we concluded that there was no other way. On this basis the University of Rhode Island's five-year International Engineering Program evolved, which is currently in its first developmental year, and will be described in the following.

The International Engineering Program, in its pilot phase, offers students at the University of Rhode Island the opportunity to combine the study of German with their engineering discipline, and to graduate after five years with both the Bachelor of Science and the Bachelor of Arts degrees. This program, which has been funded by a three year $145000 grant from the Fund For the Improvement of Post Secondary Education (U.S. Department of Education), offers separate German courses over a three year period specifically for engineers. In the fourth year students will spend a one semester internship in an engineering firm or research institute in a German speaking country. In the fifth year an interdisciplinary engineering course will be taught to these students in German by bilingual engineering faculty.

Why German? It made sense to limit the program initially to one language for the sake of the clear development of a replicable model. At Rhode Island it also made sense for German to be chosen as the pilot language for several reasons: 1) URI has a German staff committed to teaching German for the professions. 2) URI also is the home of the German Summer School of the Atlantic, a highly successful residential total immersion program subsidized by the Federal Republic of Germany. 3) URI's College of Engineering has several German speaking faculty who are very supportive of the program's goals and active participants in its development. Beyond any in-house reasons for German, however, it is a wise choice for the second language of our graduate engineers in terms of the world economy. The Federal Republic of Germany is one of our most important trading partners and one of the world's leaders in high technology. We have found that several of the over 2000 German based U.S. firms are in our area as well as many Rhode Island manufacturers who do business in Germany. Even though other languages might be an equally sound choice, private enterprise has strongly supported our decision to choose German for our pilot program.

There were several reasons for separating engineering students as a group for foreign language learning: 1) Remaining together maintains the awareness of their common academic and professional goals. 2) It reminds them on an almost daily basis that they are part of an educational experiment, and builds therewith a certain *esprit de corps* 3) Since they share a major subject area and professional goal, reading material, cultural materials, and general content matter can be oriented to their interests and needs. Even in the first weeks content can be centered on practical daily needs which will face them in Germany; before long drills can be built around mathematics, physics, and chemistry. 4) By isolating the engineers as language learners, arrangements are made simple for bringing in outside speakers to address the topic of international engineering. What are the differences between American and European engineers, manufacturers, and business persons? How do the attitudes toward technology and business vary? How can Americans become more effective abroad? 5) Keeping the engineers in a group also facilitates our plan to incorporate team teaching into the German classes. Six members of URI's College of Engineering are fluent speakers of German, who have been eager to participate in the program. As the students get to more complex levels of language learning, the engineering faculty become more crucial. It would be naive to assume that the Germanist trained in linguistics and literature will also be versed in the language of machine design, modern electronics, the finite element method, and so on. The language professional must rely on upon his colleague from the professional field for instruction at this level.

A key segment of the IEP is the internship abroad after the Junior year. After a minimum of six semesters of technical and language-culture studies, students are to be sent to a professional, paid internship of four to six months duration with a company or research facility in a German speaking country. The internship is an important educational and motivational element in the entire program; it will provide the student with first-hand exposure to the subject area in industry abroad and will also enable him or her to use and further his/her language and cultural skills in a native context.

The URI committee views the internship as the program's focal point, but also as the largest challenge in the developmental period. Will we find enough positions? Will the students be adequately prepared? Will the myriad of details be manageable without more staff and resources? Fortunately the University of Rhode Island has had experience with sending students on similar internships in the past. Furthermore, we have already established a good working relationship with regional international firms. Through the contacts of the German staff with German based firms and the many contacts which the College of Engineering has in business and industry, we are confident of success.

Because internships depend upon the cooperation of private enterprise, and because the very nature of our program is meant to address the needs of the economy, the committee felt it wise to immediately establish an **Advisory**

Board made up of persons outside of the University. It was reassuring to experience an immediate positive response to our invitations to business persons, and representatives from governmental and educational institutions. Members of the German-American business community have supported us enthusiastically; they have visited us, spoken with our students, invited the students for company tours, agreed to help with internships, and have offered the students summer jobs. We feel as if we have struck a nerve; engineers are not difficult to find and hire, but American engineers with foreign language and intercultural skills are a rarity.

Recruitment of students in the first year. After learning very late in the summer of 1987 that FIPSE would be funding the proposed program, our options for notifying students of the availability of a special beginning German course for engineers were limited. In August we sent out a mailing to all 275 incoming freshmen engineers and to sophomores as well, informing them of the program and providing a return postcard for any interested student. Our committee was very surprised to learn that over eighty students were interested. A quick second mailing with backup registration materials yielded 47 students in two sections of Beginning German for the fall semester. Our committee had anticipated perhaps fifteen students for the first year, and thus was both shocked and delighted with the response.

The first year German course is taught with two overall goals in mind. (1) Since the students who stay with the program will be going to a practical internship in Germany after six semesters of German, they must be prepared to speak the language. For this reason oral skills are stressed from the first day, and given far more attention and weight than in a traditional college German course. (2) Since the internship will also address their professional development, the students must become familiar with the vocabulary of mathematics, physics, computer science, and so forth. There are good materials currently available for this purpose, and it is possible to integrate these subjects, especially math, at a very early stage of language acquisition. The engineering faculty have been helpful in this regard; this German teacher has found that the students' math is already far beyond my own skills.

As we approach the end of the second semester, the initial group of 47 has reduced itself to 30. Some of the students have found that German is more difficult than originally imagined; others have found engineering to be too demanding with the addition of a foreign language. The attrition is natural and to be anticipated; such a program is rigorous and can be appealing, in the long run, only to the mature and capable student. Our committee assumes that the length of the three-year preparation for an internship is the best selection device for offical participation in the Program. Realistically also, we can not expect to send huge numbers of students to professional internships each year.

Enthusiasm remains high among the students. They have been pleased with the courses, and also with the variety of extracurricular activities provided by the program. There have been two tours of German based companies; there have been several guest lectures by bilingual engineers as well as by practitioners in the field. In addition to language skills the students are beginning to learn the differences in attitudes between our two societies regarding business and engineering. Through the guest speakers and occasional grant sponsored lunches for faculty, guests, and students, it is being continually driven home that they are an important group; they are a part of an educational experiment which could make a substantial difference in their own lives and also to the future of American engineering education. The best sign of the student attitude toward the program is the recent founding of a new student organization on campus, officially sanctioned by the student senate: The Society of Students of International Engineering.

What is the future course of the IEP? Over the three-year period of the FIPSE grant, we expect to have the program fully in place and institutionalized. Challenges for next year will be recruitment of a new incoming class for the beginning course, and planning and preparation for the intermediate course. Our German speaking engineering faculty are also laying plans for the technical courses to be offered in German in the fifth year of the program. The IEP also intends to sponsor an international engineering symposium in order to raise the awareness regarding the problem and our response to it; at least some of the presentations at this meeting will be in German. Finally we are launching an effort to encourage the scientific and technical faculty to consider team teaching General Education courses with some of the liberal arts faculty. Engineering students will find their way to the arts and humanities when they can see the ties of these subject areas to their own fields.

A pleasant by-product of the International Engineering Program is the positive response we have received from several sides. The press has reacted positively, as has the central administration of the university.

Furthermore, through correspondence with prospective engineering students, the College of Engineering is discovering that the IEP is a good recruiting tool. Students can study engineering at any number of schools, but other institutions do not offer engineers the opportunity of international education. Students in our program are sold on the fact that they will have an entirely new dimension to their education, which will not only enrichen their lives, but also create new and exciting career opportunities for them.

Inasmuch as the current International Engineering Program is a pilot program, which is intended to serve as a replicable model, our committee sees the current plan as the core of a larger future program. Given URI's strength in French and the presence of French-English bilingual engineering faculty, this language and culture will be the basis of our first expansion of the IEP. We are often asked why we have not chosen Japanese as the first language for our program. Although modern society might point us in this direction, we knew that neither the language department nor the engineering departments had the staff or contacts to develop in this area. We hope that our model might provide the impetus for another university to found a parallel program with Japanese as the language, just as a university in the Southwest might use Spanish as the language.

Our experience at Rhode Island has convinced us that internationalism cuts across all disciplines today and provides a common ground for discussion and action. For years the foreign language professional has argued that all Americans should be versed in a second language; yet it is typical of the pragmatic American mind not to respond without a concrete reason. And those reasons are there today; the American economy has lost its competitive edge in part because of our ignorance about the needs and wishes of the rest of the world. While some would attempt to legislate our way to a positive balance of payments, and indeed would try to force other societies to buy our goods, the only lasting solution to this problem lies in our American ability to grasp the issue and come forward with workable solutions. We educators must accept the challenge and prepare our students for the global society which we acknowledge.

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Translation Training for the Professions: A Model for Program Development and Administration

Anthony Caprio

The American University

Developing translation competence and awareness is a valuable activity within the range of most college and university foreign language programs. Training students in translation allows foreign language faculty to bring to the teaching of language yet another pedagogic means that broadens the objectives of all courses in the foreign language curriculum. This practical and professional component, which may well become one of the distinguishing and perhaps distinguished characteristics of a department, need not be achieved at considerable expense; nor need it diminish or weaken curricula offerings of departments which, for better or for worse, have maintained a more traditional orientation. Any already-existing foreign language courses in the curriculum, regardless of content, can be modified to provide a practical translation option for undergraduate and graduate students. Translation training is within reach.

This paper will present, with suggestions for adaptation, one model for translation training at the college or university level. It will describe the implementation of a translation component into already-existing foreign language courses in the curriculum. This model provides students taking regular departmental courses the possibility of ongoing practice in translation in the context of literary, cultural and area studies upon completion of the introduction to translation workshops specifically designed and introduced into the curriculum. The mechanics of the implementation of such a program, the kind of orientation and training of faculty involved in this new translation component, the kinds of cooperation between colleagues required for its successful implementation, and the effects of such programming on the department, its students, and its enrollments will be discussed. This model has been implemented at The American University in its Certificate in Translation Program.

Beginnings: A Rationale for Program Development

From the outset the Certificate in Translation Program of the Department of Language and Foreign Studies at The American University was viewed in a very practical way. The popularity of certificate granting programs at the University, particularly the Department's TESOL Certificate, led the Department somewhat spontaneously to think in terms of developing another practical, career-oriented certificate in a liberal arts context. In addition, teaching translation, with emphasis on translation into English, would allow the Department to participate in the University's efforts to raise the competence of students' English writing skills, an area in which Foreign Language Departments generally claim they have no way of making any real contribution.

Other benefits from such a program were envisioned. Lower-level language course enrollments, for example, were high. Upper-level courses were well enrolled, but clearly it would be beneficial to the Department to motivate students to continue study at the advanced levels. A certificate program that would utilize upper-level courses seemed to be a way of encouraging enrollments at the advanced level.

One additional advantage to such a certificate: conversations with other teaching units on educational matters, particularly plans that encourage student enrollment in courses in these units, are always a sure way of making friends and fostering the image of a Department that is able to utilize already-existing resources to enhance its own programs. A careful reading of the University Catalogue revealed a significant number of writing-intensive courses in English offered in various Departments throughout the University that could become a part of the required course work leading to the competency examination in translation. These included Literature Department offerings entitled "Introduction to Creative Writing", "Technical Writing", and "Seminar in Translation" as well as Communication Department offerings entitled "Feature Article Writing" and "Editorial Policies and Methods". Such courses were complemented by writing courses specific to the sciences (e.g. writing for biologists, chemists, etc.) and to the professions of law and justice. These courses were a rich complement to our own Departmental offerings.

Special Considerations

Early in the developmental stages of this Program in Translation, the Department wondered whether such a program should be offered through the Office of Continuing Education as a non-credit program. Ultimately it was concluded that matriculated undergraduate and graduate students at the University would welcome such a certificate, particularly if credits could be earned at the same time toward the degree. Clearly it would be advantageous, furthermore, to have all the courses for the Certificate count toward the Departmental major or minor in the given language. Not only would the academic program carry yet another distinctive feature but advanced level courses would be sought after when viewed as a part of a Certificate bearing program. Our assumptions have proven correct.

Language sets must also be determined. Although numerous languages are taught in the Department, majors through the M.A. are offered in French, Russian and Spanish. It is in these languages only that students may receive advanced language training, viewed from the outset as a prerequisite for the program in translation. Since the native language of the majority of our students is English, it was decided that our program should emphasize translation into English. Although translation into the foreign language is used for pedagogic purposes, students learn early in the introductory translation workshops that translation into a language other than the mother tongue is generally beyond their range. Students are also quick to realize that mastery of English for translation purposes is no simple accomplishment and that it will require hard and continuous work that goes beyond the kind of writing required in Freshman English Composition or Writing courses. We have to date limited our certificate in translation into English. Native speakers of French, Russian or Spanish whose English is not advanced enough for translation into English have enrolled in our special translation workshops, viewing these courses as a means of strengthening their English language skills; they have not, however, presented themselves for the competency examination.

Determining Program Goals

One further and major consideration: program goals and objectives must be fully agreed upon before program development can begin. There are significant differences between a program which prepares professional, life-long translators and one which develops competency in translation; there are many possible variations between the two. In our case, for example, the faculty agreed after frank appraisal of resources and faculty skills that it would not be our goal, at least at this time in our evolution, to train professional translators; rather, the goal of the Departmental program would be to introduce students to the many facets of the translation process, developing an awareness and appreciation of the art, while providing significant practice in translation in diverse subject areas. The basic introduction to translation courses in the various languages would, nonetheless, include career information on translation; such information is useful to all students for purposes of determining whether or not they wish to pursue professional training in translation as well as for understanding the extent to which translation competence may be a valuable skill in the international workplace.

Evaluating Resources

Although the Department determined that it would not offer a program that would train professional translators, it seemed at first that without external funding or without additional allocations by the University to the Departmental budget little program development could take place. A program plan did, however, evolve. We looked closely at our curriculum. The Department offers a variety of advanced courses taught in the foreign language. These include literature offerings and a significant number of area studies related courses which are a distinctive feature of the Department. Among these are civilization and culture courses as well as more specialized offerings, including, to name only a few: "France Today: A Journalistic Approach","Regionalisms in Latin America", "Latin American Socio-Economic Problems", "Cross-Cultural Communication: Latin America", and "Popular French Culture". Advanced language courses beyond the third year composition and conversation level include such courses as "French Usage", "Contemporary French Structure" and "Introduction to French Business Systems and Language", courses which readily lend themselves to a translation certificate program.

Integrating Translation Training into Already-Existing Courses

By introducing a translation element into already-existing advanced courses in literature, culture, civilization and area studies, faculty can provide students on-going practice in translation beyond that offered in the introduction to translation methods and techniques courses added to the curriculum. The subject matter of courses assures a variety of translation experiences in a meaningful and specific context. Students bring to their translations the knowledge and perspectives gained through the course, learning first hand that expertise in the subject matter is essential for effective translation; linguistic competence alone does not suffice. Because translation requires close and careful scrutiny of a text, whether literary or not, language skills are further strengthened in the context of a content course, yet another benefit of integrating translation training into already existing courses.

Put simply, by integrating a translation component into already-existing courses in the curriculum, a Department can include translation training in a meaningful context and need add only several new courses that introduce students to the basic tools and techniques of translation. Such a model provides a new dimension to undergraduate and graduate courses and offers a practical option to students without straining the limited staff and financial resourses of the Department.

The Program

The Certificate Program requires fifteen hours of advanced work, at least twelve of which must be in the foreign language (students may take three hours in intensive writing courses offered outside the Department). All students must take the introductory workshop before electing to participate in the translation component of already-existing courses in the curriculum. In these latter courses instructors generally require a translation in the subject area under investigation that is completed in addition to all course requirements for regularly-enrolled students. In some courses, a series of shorter translations are undertaken. Faculty guide and assist students in the preparation of these translations. Students who have successfully completed the course and who have produced acceptable translations as an additional component of the course are recorded as having completed a course in the translation certificate sequence. The mechanics of this process are simple. Such an arrangement requires a flexible faculty who are willing to incorporate this extra component into their courses in order to accommodate students who have identified themselves as Certificate candidates. The faculty willingly accept the extra work involved. There are course enrollment benefits, of course, but more important, motivation and willingness on the part of the faculty stems from the satisfaction of helping students develop a skill that seems to increase markedly with guided practice.

This arrangement assures familiarity with the candidate's translation abilities by all faculty involved. This is important in the advising process, particularly in the case of students whose foreign language skills or English skills indicate that passing the competency examination is unlikely. This procedure also allows faculty to help students identify areas of weakness in translation that need continued practice for improvement. This personalized approach provides both a meaningful academic and advising experience highly valued by students.

Competency Examination in Translation

A competency examination in translation is taken toward the end of the fifteen hour course requirement. It consists of two passages, 250 words each, to be translated with dictionaries and other reference works in two hours. It is a pass/fail examination, evaluated according to criteria clearly outlined and familiar to all candidates. Although students may retake the competency examination after a three month interval, we prefer to face head-on the question of competency before the examination. Since there is no entrance examination for the program, the prerequisite being the completion of two semesters of an intensive third year Composition and Conversation course or the equivalent determined in consultation with a faculty advisor, constant evaluation with frank appraisal and guidance are considered essential for this program.

Successful candidates receive an attractive certificate prepared by the University and signed by the Chair of the Department of Language and Foreign Studies and by the Assistant Provost for Academic Development at an awards ceremony held each fall and spring for University-wide certificate recipients.

Conclusion

Many aspects of the American University model can be applied by other foreign language departments interested in developing a translation component. By integrating translation training into already-existing courses, Departments may introduce a translation certificate program quickly and with the addition of only several specialized translation workshops that serve as introductions to the basic methods and techniques of translation and, to some extent, to the theory of translation. Depending on resources all students, regardless of language, may be included in the same introductory course, or separate courses for each language may be developed. Since these and all courses are open to all students, whether intended certificate seekers or not, the curriculum can be enriched to the benefit of all. Development becomes an on-going and challenging process. The inclusion of internships as a regular feature should be fully examined. Additional specialized courses in translation that best serve the needs of the specific student population can be devised. For example, a successful course centering on translation of Spanish materials in the area of international affairs has become a regular offering of the Department at The American University. Expansion to include training in translation into other languages than English can also be explored. Competency testing through an outside agency should also be considered. For example, highly qualified students could take the certification examination of the American Translators Association; training in legal, medical, scientific and technical translation would of course have to be integrated into the program to prepare students for the A.T.A. examination. The extent to which truly specialized training in these areas is included in programs depends on the interests and orientation of the students who enroll in a certificate program and the goals of the program. A program designed to prepare professional translators would have to include such courses.

The extent to which professional translators are incorporated into the program as instructors or guest lecturers depends on resources. Many departments are fortunate in having faculty members who are in fact translators; these members translate regularly for government and private agencies or are published literary translators. Clearly, departments with faculty who have expertise that goes beyond that generally found in foreign language departments are especially suited to offer translation training programs. Furthermore, when faculty members are trained in non-literary fields, such as business, international affairs or history, the Department will not run the risk of over emphasizing literary translation. It should also be noted that a program that centers on translation into English relies heavily on faculty whose native language is English. Collaboration between native and non-native speakers of English is essential within the Department, particularly when evaluating translations into English.

Although we do not offer a program that trains and educates professional translators, we have launched a unique translation component that has attracted many undergraduate and graduate students and that has allowed us to improve our regular curriculum without burdening our limited resources. It provides extensive translation practice for our students and enlightens all students, whether they seek the Certificate or not, concerning the complexities of translation. And the faculty involved are able to bring to the teaching of language another pedagogic means in a coherent manner and in a context that is practical and meaningful. The extra effort required for all of this is well worth it.

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THE AMERICAN EVOLUTION OF ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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THE AMERICAN EVOLUTION OF ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to provide an historical overview of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) movement in the United States, and its relationship to contemporary trends in second language education. Much of the attention on the movement's past focuses on its British and Third World roots. No study to date has examined the growth of ESP in the United States. Yet a sense of the past and ESP's position in second language education add direction and unity to the profession.

The ESP movement refers to the distinctive area of ESL education that focuses on the learner's purpose in acquiring a language. ESP courses teach language for a particular communicative purpose, within certain settings and sociolinguistic contexts. The teacher selects vocabulary, structures and language functions with attention to how the learner intends to use the language, considering as well the types of interaction and register that are likely to be needed by the students. Then the teacher chooses materials and plans activities accordingly. Typically the ESP learner is an adult who has a particular professional or academic orientation; s/he works in business, medicine, science, law, engineering or is preparing to enter one of these fields through study at a university. English for Academic Purposes and Study Skills, and recently, English for Teaching Assistants are considered part of the ESP field.

Historical Origins

Widdowson (1983) traces the very beginning of the ESP movement to H. E. Palmer in the 1920's in Great Britain. In his work, Palmer said "a program of study depends on the aims of the students, that we cannot design a language course till we know about needs of the learner." The driving philosophy behind the ESP movement is of course the development and execution of a curriculum especially suited to the needs of a particular group of learners -- defined by a profession or vocational unit such as medical personnel, scientists, business persons, or adults intent upon entering an academic program at a university. However, Palmer's identification of the primary goal of the ESP movement did not coincide with a large movement toward ESP courses. The movement actually gained its impetus and had its initial growth surge forty years later in the 1960's. Swales (1984) pinpoints the start of the ESP movement in 1962 with Charles Barber's article "Some measurable characteristics of modern scientific prose.' Barber analysed the structural nature of scientific prose and suggested that the progressive tenses were not frequently used. As a result of his study, set in the sixties at the height of the influence of the structuralists, teachers like John Swales decided to eliminate the study of the progressive tenses from English as a Foreign Language courses for science students. This indicated a break with the tradition of the time which dictated the dutiful inclusion of the entire grammatical system in courses for ESL/EFL students.

As in the case of Barber, the first work in ESP was directed toward science and technology. In 1965 A. J. Herbert published The Structure of Technical English which dealt with the special problems associated with language for science and the expression of technical facts and ideas. In keeping with the structuralist tradition of the time, Herbert's book taught grammatical structures using examples taken from engineering. Herbert was a language teacher who wrote his text with assistance from colleagues in the college of engineering, an early example of interdisciplinary cooperation inspired by ESP. Herbert clearly states in his introduction that the purpose of the text is to teach language rather than engineering.

Allen and Widdowson's (1978) English in Physical Science follows the functional notional approach that "learning a language is not merely a matter of learning sentence patterns and vocabulary but ... also involves an understanding of how people use these linguistic forms in order to communicate." (p. xi) It employs a cyclical presentation of simpler to more complex subject matter, and favors problem-solving and the development of critical thinking rather than mechanical drills and pattern practice. Its goals are to teach neither language nor content in isolation, but to integrate both in meaningful communication.

Subsequent developments in the areas of sociolinguistic theory and practice in the mid sixties and seventies revealed the relationship between the linguistic form and the communicative function of the language. New importance was placed on the situation, setting, speaker's and listener's background and frame of reference. A plethora of new language teaching methodologies such as TPR, community language learning, suggestology, silent way with an emphasis on communicative language skills emerged during this period. Coinciding with the changes in teaching methodology was a tremendous demand for EFL courses. Students were willing and able to spend large sums of money on language courses. A competitive situation developed, and innovative programs that promised results were embraced. The new group of eager learners had little time to waste and wanted to learn English suited for their specific needs. In general, ESP learners to this day have a very clear idea of why they are studying English and a great impatience with studying anything that they perceive as irrelevant to their needs.

In its attempt to unify Europe's system of awarding university credit, and in response to the functional-notional approach to syllabus design in language teaching, the Council of Europe developed a unit-credit system for teaching English based on the functional-notional approach. Subsequently the Council of Europe completed a project that developed English teaching programs and functional-notional materials for forty-four occupational categories. The functional-notional approach lends itself well to ESP by selecting a limited amount of language functions for the learner to master. The syllabus designer chooses those functions most related to the learner's needs, and selects structures and vocabulary according to the level and needs of the student.

The learner-centered approach to language teaching also plays a role in ESP instruction with its concentration on identifying and meeting learner's communicative needs and purposes.

The use of authentic materials, as advocated by second language educators such as Bernhardt (1988), is important in teaching ESP. Morrow (1977) defines authentic materials as "real language, produced by a real speaker for a real audience to convey a real message." These materials commonly are used in ESP courses to provide relevant and useful reading and listening matter that is culturally and linguistically rich. The authentic materials draw on the subject specific background knowledge of the ESP learner and thus facilitate comprehension of the text. Types of authentic materials used in ESP courses include excerpts from newspapers, professional journals, textbooks, unedited spontaneous conversations, technical videotapes, training films, and tapes of television shows.

ESP reflects as well the trend toward the integration of language and content instruction. Content-based instruction views language as a medium of instruction as well as a vehicle for communication. As such, motivation to learn about the subject is intertwined with the need to learn the language. The language is embedded in context that is important and meaningful to the ESP learner.

The special language needs of the workplace began to receive attention from language educators, particularly in the Third World and from the British Council. Occupational, vocational training programs in business and industry and in the medical and social services fields demanded special ESP courses tailored to their particular needs.

Another interesting development in Great Britain gave initial impetus to the movement. In the late 1950s and early 60s, immigration from the Commonwealth reach a peak in Great Britain and prompted the introduction of the Commonwealth Immigrants Act in July 1962. Pilot projects for immigrant LEP workers in Ealing and Slough were initiated. The management and workers worked with curriculum developers to determine course content and company specific programs. The training sessions lasted ten to twelve weeks with daily instruction held onsite to minimize loss of production time.

Other areas of ESP that grew in the 1970s include English for Academic Purposes and English for Medical Personnel. Yorkey's (1970) text Study Skills for Students of ESL was one of the first in EAP. Great Britain saw some of the first courses in English for hospital workers in the early seventies.

The rapid economic development of the Middle East in the early 1970's brought an unprecedented proliferation of post-secondary English teaching programs there, directly related to the need to use English as a medium of instruction in Middle Eastern countries. In 1975, courses in scientific English were offered for the first time at the Faculty of Science in Kuwait University. By 1977, military academies, private language schools, airlines, universities throughout the Middle East, English Language Teaching Institutes all offered ESP courses, principally in English for Science and Technology.

Swales (1977) notes that the ESP component of programs in the Middle East is influenced strongly by whether Americans or the British were involved in program development. The English were much more likely to include an ESP component in the curriculum than the Americans. This British Council, corresponding to the US Information Service's English Language Teaching Branch, has actively assisted in numerous teaching projects in Third World countries and included ESP components in these activities. Their funding for English teaching activities is vastly larger than the budget that the USIA allocates its teaching division. The figure that the British Council spends on English language teaching is reported to be ten times greater than that spent by the USIA.

The contrast in British and American support for the ESP movement can be attributed to fundamental differences in educational philosophy and systems. First, the British system of education favors early specialization and directs students toward a specific program early on in the instructional program. Examinations are offered in specific areas, and the entire thrust of the system promotes subject or professional specialization. In the United States, the liberal arts curriculum is cherished as the way to develop well-rounded, fullly educated individuals. Specialization is put off until the second or third year of college, when a major must be declared. Even when a major is declared, typically a full half of a student's coursework is devoted to liberal studies, or may be chosen from a wide array of electives. Americans favor a general preparation for college students, and stave off specialization for as long as possible. Even the primary testing instruments used nationally for college admissions the SAT and GRE consist of English and Math components, although exams do exist in area specializations.

The American Evolution of ESP

In the United States, ESP caught on approximately ten to fifteen years after its start in Great Britain and the Third World. The first real evidence of ESP in America came in the early 1980s in America. One of the earliest indications of its growing appeal was the appearance of the ESP Journal in 1980, which drew upon the talents of British experts. Additionally, a conference was held in 1981 at Northeastern University on Foreign Languages for the Professions . The introduction to the proceedings (1981) gives credit to the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies for inspiring the conference. While the Commission's famous report (1979) Strength through Wisdom focused on the decline of language skills in the United States, it noted the need for professionally-linked foreign langauge courses. The Commission suggested that linguistic skills are a plus when combined with other professional knowledge in fields such as engineering, business, and nursing. The conference proceedings reported a rather surprising enthusiasm among participants for non-traditional foreign language study of applied language skills.

In 1982, Eastern Michigan University held the first annual Conference on Languages for Business and the Professions. It centered on Spanish, and was enthusiastically received and attended by approximately 200 advocates of applied language studies. The conference in 1983 expanded its coverage to

English, French, and German in addition to Spanish. Each year since then the conference has been repeated to include other languages for specific purposes. The Modern Language Association featured its first workshop on languages for specific purposes in New York in 1983, led by faculty from Eastern Michigan University (EMU). At the same time EMU developed a successful program in foreign languages and international trade in an effort to meet student demand and increase departmental enrollments. Other universities such as University of South Carolina and Clemson have followed EMU's lead to develop successful language and international business programs of their own.

The first national survey of the spread of LSP courses in the curriculum of four year colleges and universities by Uber Grosse (1985) showed that 62% of 450 responding institutions offered at least one course in foreign languages for specific purposes.

Other measures of the growth of ESP in the United States in the eighties include its growing presence in the curriculum in higher education, the rising number of presentations at the TESOL conference related to ESP, the expansion of American publishers' booklists in ESP, and the increasing number of ESP articles published in professional journals.

Future Trends in ESP in America

In materials development for ESP, the British still dominate with the innovative quality of their texts and videotape series, although publishers such as Prentice-Hall have worked to expand their offerings in the field over the past three years.

Predictably, text offerings for the American market will continue to increase as interest in ESP expands in the 1990's.

A decade ago, Brumfit (1977) recommended that ESP teachers look beyond political and commercial requirements toward genuine educational goals. ESP teachers and curriculum developers must must continue to take language function, register, learner purpose, text and the interaction process. Brumfit urges the profession to allow more open-ended work, to use language in more realistic simulations, to avoid becoming overprecise, too specialized. We should seek integration with and acceptance by the rest of the profession, rather than isolation and independence.

In conclusion, the present ESP movement is inextricably tied to current trends in second language education such as content-based instruction, the interactive, communicative classroom, a student-centered focus, the use of authentic materials, attention to language functions, register, discourse analysis, and extralinguistic context. The spectrum of what precisely is considered ESP will continue to expand to embrace English for Business, Health Professionals, Social Workers, Science and Technology, Academic Purposes, Study Skills, Teaching Assistants, Lawyers, Firefighters, Helicopter Pilots, and so forth!

The move toward applied language studies has revitalized the second language teaching profession with its response to learner needs. It continues to give a new and practical orientation to the profession as more and more teachers and students are drawn to the challenge of specialized language learning.

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VII. BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL FRENCH

"SETTING UP A FRENCH LANGUAGE PROGRAM FOR BUSINESS STUDENTS: A PROGRESS REPORT"

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SETTING UP A FRENCH LANGUAGE PROGRAM FOR BUSINESS STUDENTS: A PROGRESS REPORT

The present paper is a account of the initial stages of the organization of a French language program for Business students at the University of Antwerp (RUCA), Belgium.

The French program is a (nearly) obligatory part of the students' curriculum; it takes place during the first three years of the business degree program. The students have two weekly hours of French, for one of which only they are subdivided into small groups (approx. 20 students). The total number of students taking the course is large: approx. 350 in the first year, 150 in each of the two following years. The staff for the program includes, apart from myself, one full-time and one part-time assistant and a part-time secretary. The native language of the students is Flemish (Dutch).

When I arrived the course had been neglected for several years, for many reasons: the library contained NO books on French, business French or business communication generally; the French language office was not much richer.

The renewal of the French program is a long-term enterprise, but can be subdivided into the following stages:

(1) Writing a coursebook to take care of immediate needs, with emphasis being placed on acquiring business-related communications skills as well as on linguistic performance proper. This project is well advanced now: a French Grammar with exercises geared towards business French, and a Manual for Oral and Written Communication (business correspondence, report writing, talking in public, organizing meetings) have been published in preliminary versions and can be inspected at the conference; a lexicon is being built now, and may be available at the time of the conference also.

(2) Carrying out a thorough and extensive error analysis on the basis of the students' papers and oral performances; this process is in progress now and will be reported on during my oral presentation.

(3) Testing the developed course material in class and adjusting it accordingly, also taking the results of the error analysis into account; this part of the program is also in progress.

(4) Publishing the final version of the material as a Manual of Business French.

(5) Preparing a version of the Manual for office use on the basis of an analysis of the specificity of problems there.

(6) In parallel, an investigation program into intercultural communication problems in the business world (in particular with African nations) is being set up; parts of its results may be integrated into the Manual.

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PRACTICAL FRENCH

A Program Model For Language Instruction

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PRACTICAL FRENCH

PRACTICAL FRENCH is designed to satisfy the needs of any mature learner who wants to gain a quick familiarity with the basics of spoken foreign language. I think that besides the speed of learning which it affords, adaptability is its second big feature. This program does not aim at the learning level where the students talk incessantly of going to class or to the cafeteria, or how the professor addresses them in class, etc.

The vocabulary of each lesson can be adjusted (or totally created) to suit the area needs of the students. General office workers need one vacabulary while pharmaceutical workers need quite another. People involved in general travel, social services and so on, all have need of a certain vocabulary and the instructor can use a vocabulary list which will be most serviceable for the group. My control group was mixed, so I chose what I call the "serious tourist" vocabulary. No special area is targeted and the student should be able to complete the trip with a minimum of communication difficulty.

Once the group to be taught is identified and the vocabulary decided upon, the oral drills are built around the vocabulary list. Five essential phrases are given for each lesson. The first lesson, of course, will vary little from group to group; "Good day," and "How are you?" will probably appear in everybody's first lesson. By the third lesson, the phrases are specifically related to the area of interest.

I developed my lessons in French because that is the language I usually teach, but an effective teacher of any other language can offer the program in his/her language. This is part of the adaptability of the method, but my reference here will always be to French forms.

In eight lessons of 90 minutes each, the student acquires the knowledge to use the present, passé, composé, and turur proche tenses, as well as "Je voudrais," and a basic vocabulary of forty-five verbs and approximately one hundred nouns, adjectives and adverbs to use with certain grammatical points. In addition, the student is introduced to the concept of prepositions and their use by illustrative examples featuring "de" and "à."

There is no textbook assigned for the course. Some students may want a basic grammar to use as a reference, but I would recommend that for after the eight-week session. The student receives all information from the instructor and the Lesson Sheet.

The content of each lesson is outlined on the Lesson Sheet which is distributed at the end of the drill session. The purpose of the Lesson Sheet is to permit the students to create their own manual of information which, in the end, will contain all the material covered in class and no extraneous materials, such as exercises not covered in class or irrelevant to the idea of presenting only immediately useful material.

The purpose of distributing the Lesson Sheet at the end of the hour is to keep the student thoroughly dependent on the instructor throughout the drill phase of the session. (The drill phase occupies about 60 minutes).

The class is run as an oral drill session; the students sit facing the instructor, preferably in one row or semicircle, although this is not absolutely essential. The method of response developed by John Rassias is recommended for this phase. I think you could use others, but I developed this program with the rapid response in mind.

Written illustrations are put on the board by the instructor, as needed. During the entire session each student is required to have a tape recorder to record everything that is said. Homework consists of reviewing the oral drills and the comments made on the tape. There is a week between meetings, so students have ample opportunity to drill and review.

Optional practice writing drills can be introduced to the homework assignments. They will be based on the content of the Lesson Sheet, but the decision to use them should be determined by the purpose of the students' attending the course; they may not need written work at this point.

A typical session goes as follows:

1. Questions on the previous lesson(s).
2. Review of the drills done in the previous lesson.
3. The new lesson:
    a. Five essential phrases
    b. Ten common verbs and their six forms, in the tense to be drilled
    c. Grammatical points (prepositions, gender, adjectives, etc.)
    d. new vocabulary (approximately fifteen words)
    e. numbers

f. answer students' questions

g. review (a) and (b) as time permits

The last meeting is reserved for review and individual presentations. Each student is given 5 minutes to make an oral presentation using material learned in the course. There is a question and answer period at the end of each presentation. This is an opportunity for the individual presenter as well as the class to observe their achievement.

The oral drill phase of this method has been used successfully for years. The present program is aimed at "adult" learners who are either in careers where the acquisition of basic skills is needed in a fairly short time or where the basic language skills will facilitate travel and communication in support of another endeavor. As I mentioned before, it can be adapted to the needs of the tourist, but it can also help the American who will have dealings with representatives of foreign companies in this country.

The work required for this program is considerable for both the student and the teacher. The twelve hours are spread over eight weeks so that a regular program can be maintained, e.g., every Saturday morning or every Thursday evening, and especially so that the material can be assimilated. It is absolutely essential that the student work independently with the tapes in the time between class sessions. The student's success depends closely on the number of times he/she reviews the tape for oral drill and grammatical explanations.

The instructor must prepare lessons according to class requirements. It is conceivable that a specific topic will not be used again, but it is more likely that there will be some recurrent need for a previously prepared program (e.g., the travel program, the pharmaceutical program, etc.). And finally, the instructor must be particularly adept in the skills needed for rapid oral drill.

The participants have given the course good evaluations. They like the idea of hearing themselves and their own professor as they work in class. They are free to criticize their personal work, and the work of others, privately, thereby learning from all the class experiences. Those who have difficulty working with language teachers, on or off tape, find the entire procedure a more relaxed way of learning. And they may keep the tapes indefinitely.

The flexibility of the program can provide more depth, if needed, but this would be at the expense of speed of learning, i.e., more meetings. Extending the length depends on the goals of the individual group. The aim of the present experiment was to obtain an everyday working ability in the language and a foundation on which to build. From that point of departure, it succeeded.

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STANDARDIZED TESTS AS AN ALTERNATIVE TO THE ORAL INTERVIEW

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Standardized Tests as an Alternative to the Oral Interview

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Introduction

During the past seven or eight years, since the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages undertook to promote a procedure and a scale for measuring speaking proficiency, the "Proficiency Movement" has won general recognition among foreign language trachers. A major contribution of ACTFL's effort has been to establish the Oral Proficiency Interview as the best known measure of speaking proficiency in the profession. Considerable attention has been paid in the literature of the past few years to studying this measure. There are few language teaching journals that have not published one or more articles on proficiency. Numerous textbooks have included a proficiency orientation. Many regions of the country have benefited from workshops designed to familiarize teachers with the Oral Proficiency Interview. Many individuals have earned credentials from ACTFL as certified testers in both commonly and less commonly taught languages. The value of results from the Oral Proficiency Interview in terms of reliability seems fairly well established. In terms of validity there is controversy but not enough to prevent growing numbers of professionals from accepting it as a useful way to communicate about speaking proficiency

The one undisputed characteristic of the oral interview is, however, that it takes time. Normally, in the ACTFL model, 15 to 30 minutes are required to carry out the interview. If a single rater conducts the interview alone, the interview should be recorded and rated by another qualified rater. Subsequent review by either or both raters, which may be necessary in borderline cases, adds even more time. Assuming an average time of 60 minutes per student, it can be seen that teachers dealing with upwards of 90 students a semester will not find this a practical procedure in situations where large numbers of students need to be tested in a short period, such as for placement at the start of a program or for final evaluation at the end of a program. However, if another procedure were shown to give similar results with more rapidly administered procedures, the latter might have some use. It is the purpose of this paper to present evidence of a correlation between the results of the oral proficiency interview with two laboratory administered tests, one in the listening mode and one in the speaking mode.

Procedures

In the winter term of 1984, with considerable cooperation and collaboration within the Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies at a medium-sized regional public university in the midwest, a group of sudents at various levels in French took the oral proficiency interview and two laboratory tests, the MLA listening test and the MLA speaking test. It was made clear to the students that participation in the tests was a required part of the course but that the results of the tests would not count toward a grade. Following each test, students completed a survey composed of twelve questions asking their reactions to the test. The results of the tests and surveys are in the process of being analyzed and prepared in order to be submitted for publication.

A. The Sample

In the winter term 1984, the Department offered 15 French classes at four undergraduate levels and one graduate level. There were a total of 231 enrollments representing approximately 197 people. Since one person may register for more than one French course, there are more enrollments than people. There were 79 students at the 100 level; none of these were registered for classes at a higher level. There were 58 200-level students, one of whom was also registered in a course at a higher level. At the 300 level there was a total of 47 people, 7 of whom were enrolled in more than one course. At the 400, 500, and 600 levels, where two courses at different levels are often combined into one class, about 15 people were enrolled in four classes. The percentage of participation at the different levels and overall is as follows: 100 level: 73%, 200 level: 60%, 300 level 67%, 400 level: 15% (approximately), 500, 600 (graduate) levels: 0%. The overall participation was 64%.

B. The Instruments

The Oral Proficiency Interview is a procedure and a rating scale that the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, in collaboration with the Educational Testing Service, has adapted from a model used for many years by U.S. government foreign language training agencies. ACTFL began offering workshops to train foreign language teachers in the academic sector to use a modified scale and procedure that are consistent with the levels reached by students of foreign languages in schools and colleges. Briefly, the interview takes place between a candidate and the tester. There is no fixed set of questions. Based on candidate responses to a few warm-up questions, the tester attempts to launch a conversation in which the candidate can show the highest level of proficiency of which he or she is capable. The scale used has nine levels divided into four ranges; the ranges are called Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, and Superior. Once the tester is confident of having given ample opportunity for the candidate to speak and is confident of the rating to be given, the interview is brought to a close. Depending on the candidate's proficiency, the interview may last from 15 minutes to as much as one half hour. Usually the interview is recorded, and, in order to gain an official rating from ACTFL, the interview is rated by another certified tester. In the present case, I carried out the interviews in the winter term of 1984, having participated in the ACTFL tester training workshop in the fall of 1983. I recorded the interviews for my own interest, but they were not reviewed by any others, and the ratings assigned are mine alone.

The MLA tests of listening and speaking are a set of different tests at three different levels, L, M, and H, developed by the Modern Language Association in collaboration with the Educational Testing Service in the early 1960's. The listening test is on audio tape, lasts about 30 minutes, and can be administered to a large group in one sitting. The speaking test lasts about 15 minutes and requires that the candidate's responses be recorded on tape. It can be administered to a group in a language laboratory. These tests can be characterized as discrete-point item tests, that is, each question focuses on a very limited linguistic problem. The level L test was written for students near the end of one year of college French, level M for students near the end of two years, and level H for students near the end of a college major program preparing a career in teaching. In an ambitious norming study conducted by ETS in the 1960's, all levels of the tests were admnistered to students in selected schools around the country. The results were intercorrelated to create an overall converted score scale ranging from 100(?) to 300 (?). In the present study, students took both the listening test and the speaking test in the language laboratory. Students registered in French 121 and 122 took the listening and speaking tests at level L; students in French 222, 233, and 234 took level M; and students in French 342, 344, and 362 and above took level H. For the listening test, all items were multiple-choice. The papers were scored and the scores were converted to the converted score scale. The speaking test responses were recorded on audio cassette, and each one was evaluated by myself following guidelines recommended in the MLA manual. The resulting scores were also converted to the converted score scale.

Students were given a survey consisting of a rating scale from one to five, with one representing strongly agree and 5 representing strongly disagree, and twelve statements. Students were instructed to rate their reactions to all statements immediately following each of the tests. They were also asked to sign their copy of the survey.

C. Analysis

Following the administration of the tests and gathering of results considerable time has been devoted to rating the speaking tests and to transfering data to a form that can be analyzed by computer. That work is still going on. Some preliminary results are available.

Results

A. Descriptive statistics

Results of Tests by Semester Level

Mean/Standard Deviation

(N=Number of Subjects)

Course Number	Semester Level	OPI	MLA LST	MLA SPK
FRN 121	1	2.3/1.0 (N=32)	151.8/10.1 (N=36)	169.4/12.1 (N=33)
FRN 122	2	2.9/1.3 (N=15)	162.6/9. (N=8)	176.4/7.2 (N=11)
FRN 222, 234	4	4.2/1.3 (N=52)	167.0/11.9 (N=54)	172.9/6.0 (N=52)
FRN 362	6	5.7/1.2 (N=19)	175.8/14.9 (N=23)	186.2/5.2 (N=23)
FRN	6-9	5.7/1.3 (N=10)	184.9/17.6 (N=15)	188.1/8.0 (N=16)

As can be seen, there is a clear progression in the test results according to the semester level of enrollment. This is true for all of the tests. Just how close this correlation is can be seen in a correlation coefficient, as follows

B Correlations

Correlation tables for the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), the MLA Speaking Test (SPK), and the MLA Listening Test (LIS), N is the number of cases available and p is the significance level

FRN 121 (Pearson r)

	OPI	SPK	LIS	
OPI				
SPK	0.72 (N=28)			
LIS	0.73 (N=31)	0.80 (N=33)		$p<0.001$

FRN 122 (Pearson r)

	OPI	SPK	LIS	
OPI				
SPK	0.49 (N=25)			
LIS	0.64 (N=27)	0.65 (N=30)		$p<0.01$

FRN 222 (Pearson r)

	OPI	SPK	LIS	
OPI				
SPK	0.64 (19)			
LIS	0.53 (20)	0.47 (20)		$p<0.1$

FRN 234 (Pearson r)

	OPI	SPK	LIS	
OPI				
SPK	0.60 (31)			
LIS	0.69 (32)	0.74 (32)		p<0.001

FRN 342, 344, 362 (443/620) (Pearson r)

	OPI	SPK	LIS	
OPI				
SPK	0.75 (N=28)			
LIS	0.68 (N=28)	0.74 (N=36)		p<0.001

All Levels (Spearman rho)

	OPI	SPK	LIS	
OPI				
SPK	0.61 (N=133)			
LIS	0.74 (N=139)	0.71 (N=153)		p<0.01

The N value, that is, the number of people whose scores are used in the correlation, is different within a given class, because, when one person did not take both tests being correlated, that person's score is not included. In each table there are also correlation values and a confidence level. In most tables the highest correlation is between the MLA Listening and the MLA Speaking tests. This is expected, since the two tests were developed together by the Educational Testing Service. In four of six tables the lowest correlation is between the MLA Speaking Test and the Oral Proficiency Interview. This is surprising, but may be explained by the fact that scoring the MLA Speaking Test is complicated, and maintaining reliability is very difficult. The most interesting correlation is between the Oral Proficiency Interview and the MLA Listening Test. In only one class did the value fall below 0.60. That class, FRN 222, is devoted mostly to reading French; there is little emphasis on listening/speaking abilities, which are more important in all the other classes. In the correlation of scores at all levels the MLA Listening with Oral Proficiency Interview value shows a moderately strong correlation. The confidence values are satisfactory, except in the case of FRN 222, where p=0.1. This means that the result may not be significant statistically and may not merit being considered.

In a related study, thirteen students from a 300-level class were candidates for the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Paris Certificat de français des affaires. To obtain the Certificat, students must successfully pass an examination that takes a full day and includes four written parts and two oral parts. As this exam was administered at E.M.U., the results of the oral part of the test were available. When these results are correlated with the results of the Oral Proficiency Interview, a Pearson r of 0.67 with a p value of <.01 is observed.

Discussion

There seems to be more than a hint that the MLA listening test and the MLA speaking test have a moderate correlation with the ACTFL/ETS Oral Proficiency Interview. This suggests that, in some circumstances, one of these tests might be used to replace the other. For example, when there is a need to screen large numbers of candidates in a short period of time, as at the begnning of a program of instruction, the listening test, which can be administered to considerable numbers in one sitting and scored rapidly, even by machine, might serve as a basis for preliminary judgment of individuals' proficiency in speaking. Another possible use of the apparently more efficient procedure would be to help candidates who are preparing for an oral interview that may be a requirement for successful completion of a program of instruction.

While the MLA Listening Test is more efficient, there is a problem that must be addressed if it is used for placing students in a program. This test is really three tests at different levels. Although the scores are convertible to a converted score scale, some idea of the student's prior background in the language is needed in order to chose the test whose score will show most effectively the student's true level. Such information is not always available or interpretable, as in the case of someone who has not followed a regular program of study. This is less of a problem when the MLA Listening test is used within a given program where the student's progress is already known.

Some ways that this study might be improved if it were to be run again would be to have more than one rater for the oral proficiency interview and to have independent raters, that is, one who are not directly involved in teaching the students to be tested. Another improvement would be to base the identifying of the sample group on a random selection procedure.

It will be interesting to see whether the results of the student attitude survey will show a preference for any one of the tests or whether students seem to view them as equally valid for testing their proficiency in the language.

Conclusion

The presenting of information on a moderate correlation between the time-consuming face-to-face Oral Proficiency Interview and the more efficiently administered and scored MLA Listening test is perhaps not surprising, given the observation that language learning has at least a general factor. That is to say, the learning of different skills, such as speaking and listening, involves, to some extent, learning a combined or "general" skill in the language. Given a normal sample of language students over a wide range of levels, those individuals who are more proficient in listening will most probably be more proficient in speaking. Furthermore, greater efficiency with similar results does not make one test better for use in all situations. The oral interview has a flexibility allowing personal interchange between tester and candidate that is impossible in the language lab. This opportunity for communication, when time constraints are not as much of a factor, is a distinct advantage.

ALUMNI QUESTIONNAIRE

For items which do not specify other directions, please circle the letter(s) of the most appropriate responses(s).

PERSONAL AND EDUCATIONAL DATA

1. What is your citizenship?
   - a. U.S.
   - b. Other ______________

2. What degree/certification did you complete at EMU?
   - a. Bachelor's degree
   - b. Master's degree
   - c. Elementary certification
   - d. Secondary certification
   - e. K-12 certification

3. What was your major area of study? (If Language and International Trade, circle language area as well.)
   - a. English as a Second Language
   - b. French
   - c. German
   - d. Spanish
   - e. Bilingual Education
   - f. Language and International Trade
   - g. TESOL

4. When did you complete your program?

   Month ____________ 19____

5. Have you taken any certification or competency examinations related to your program of study?
   - a. No
   - b. Yes, and I passed.
   - c. Yes, and I did not pass.
   - d. Yes, but I do not yet know the result.

6. If you answered "Yes" to #5, which examination did you take?

   ____

7. Since completing your program at EMU, have you continued, or do you plan to continue, your education?
   - a. Yes, I have completed further study.
   - b. Yes, I am currently enrolled in a program.
   - c. Yes, I plan to continue my education.
   - d. No, I have no such plans.

8. If you answered "Yes" to #7, what further degree or certificate have you earned or do you plan to earn?

   ____

9. If you answered #8,

   A. What was/is your main area of study?

   ____

   B. What was/is your reason for furthering your studies?

   ____

   ____

   ____

10. Did you complete an internship, cooperative education, or student teaching assignment at EMU?
    - a. Yes, in the U.S.
    - b. Yes, overseas in ______________
    - c. No.

11. If you answered "Yes" to #13:

    A. Name of company or school:

    ____

    B. From ____________ to ____________
    (Month/Yr) (Month/Yr)

12. How would you rate EMU assistance in locating your off-campus assignment?
    - a. Excellent
    - b. Good
    - c. Fair
    - d. Poor

13. How would you rate your off-campus assignment?
    - a. Excellent
    - b. Good
    - c. Fair
    - d. Poor
    - e. Waste of Time

14. Objectives. Please indicate whether your program at EMU helped you meet the following objectives by checking the most appropriate response.

Academic Objectives	Yes	No	N/A
a. Increase knowledge and understanding of your field of study	___	___	___
b. Obtain a degree or certificate	___	___	___
c. Apply theoretical learning	___	___	___
d. Identify important professional organizations and sources of information	___	___	___
Career Education and Preparation	**Yes**	**No**	**N/A**
e. Discover career interests	___	___	___
f. Develop long-term career goals	___	___	___
g. Prepare for a career change	___	___	___
h. Obtain skills for your career	___	___	___
i. Increase chances for promotion	___	___	___

15. Which of the above objectives (or others you have/had) were the most important during your studies and which do you think are the most important now?

	During studies	Now
Most important	______________	______________
Second	______________	______________
Third	______________	______________

EMPLOYMENT INFORMATION

16. Are you currently employed?
    - a. Yes, full-time
    - b. Yes, part-time
    - c. No

    If yes, how long have you been in this position? ______________

17. In what area was the first job you had after completion of your EMU program?
    - a. Government
    - b. Business/Industry
    - c. Public school
    - d. Private school
    - e. Junior college
    - f. University
    - g. Vocational school
    - h. Adult education

18. Describe your position (accountant, elementary teacher), listing the three most important duties:

    ____

19. If not the same, what is your current job, or if unemployed, your most recent job?
    - a. Area of employment (refer to #17)

      ____
    - b. Description of position (i.e. duties)

      ____

      ____

      ____

20. What is your current annual salary? (For part-time jobs, estimate full-time equivalent.)
    - a. Less than $20,000
    - b. $20,000--$29,000
    - c. $30,000--$39,000
    - d. $40,000 or more

21. Was knowing a foreign language a significant factor in your finding employment?

    a. Yes b. No

22. To what extent is your current (or most recent) job related to your major area of study?

    a. Directly related
    b. Somewhat related
    c. Not related at all

23. If you answered "Not at all" to #22, why not?

    a. I never looked for work related to my area of study.

    b. I looked for a job in my area, but could not find one.

24. To what extent do the functions of your present (or most recent) job involve using your foreign language?

    a. More than 4 hours a day
    b. 1 to 4 hours a day
    c. Once a week
    d. Once a month
    e. None

25. If you answered positively to #24, which language? ____________________

26. If you use a language in your job, for what purpose(s)?

    a. Reading
    b. Writing
    c. Speaking
    d. Listening
    e. Translating
    f. Interpreting

27. How did you find your current (most recent) job?

    a. EMU Placement Office
    b. EMU professor contact
    c. Professional organization
    d. Employment agency
    e. Classified ad
    f. Direct application
    g. Friends/relatives
    h. Through co-op/internship
    i. Other ____________________

SUMMARY QUESTIONS

28. How would you rate your overall language and culture preparation at EMU for your current (most recent) job?

    a. Excellent b. Good c. Adequate d. Inadequate

29. What were the strengths of the EMU program in preparing you for your current work and/or studies?

30. What were the weaknesses of the EMU program in preparing you for your current work and/or studies? Are there essential courses or areas of studies that need to be developed or added to the language/trade program? If so, what are they?

All personal information supplied in answer to the above questions will remain strictly confidential. Alumni of the Language and International Trade program please go on to page 4 for more specific questions regarding your area.

LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE QUESTIONNAIRE

The following ten items are specifically to be answered by those whose degrees are in Language and International Trade.

1. To what extent is your employer involved in international concerns?

   a. 76 - 100%
   b. 51 - 75%
   c. 26 - 50%
   d. 1 - 25%
   e. Not at all

   If you answered one from a-d, with which countries?

   ____

2. What is the primary activity of your firm?

   a. Manufacturing (non-auto)
   b. Auto manufacturing
   c. Retail/ Wholesale
   d. Finance/ Banking
   e. Transportation
   f. Other ________________________

3. What are your firm's annual sales? (in millions of dollars)

   a. Under 10
   b. 10 - 25
   c. 25 - 50
   d. 50 - 100
   e. 100 - 250
   f. 250 - 500
   g. 500 - 1 billion
   h. Over 1 billion
   i. I don't know

4. How many employees does your firm have in the U.S.?

   a. Under 100
   b. 100 - 499
   c. 500 - 999
   d. 1000 and over
   e. I don't know.

5. Does your firm have overseas subsidiaries?

   Yes________ No________

6. How many employees does your firm have outside the U.S.?

   a. Under 100
   b. 100 - 499
   c. 500 - 999
   d. 1000 and over
   e. I don't know.

7. What is the primary activity of your firm in international business?

   a. Export
   b. Import
   c. Import-Export
   d. Finance
   e. Freight Forwarding
   d. Other ________________________

8. To what extent are the duties of your job related to int'l concerns?

   a. 76 - 100%
   b. 51 - 75%
   c. 26 - 50%
   d. 1 - 25%
   e. Not at all

9. In which business area did you concentrate?

   a. Accounting
   b. Finance
   c. Management
   d. Marketing
   e. Other ______________

10. To what extent were your business studies a factor in your finding a job?

    a. Very Important
    b. Important
    c. Slightly Important
    d. Unimportant

FRENCH BUSINESS LANGUAGE AND ENVIRONMENT PROGRAM AT NATES GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS (FRANCE)

by

Mr. David J. Read

Nates Graduate School of Business

David Read

Paper for Conference on Languages and Communication for World Business and the Professions.

Ann Arbor, Michigan, April 7-9, 1988.

French Business Language and Environment Program
at Nantes Graduate School of Business (France)

This presentation is designed to describe the objectives and content of a five-week program held for the first time in the summer of 1987 at the Nantes Graduate School of Business. It developed out of experience in two areas:

1. Summer programs for American undergraduate students on the European Economic Community, European Business and Finance, and European Social and Cultural Environment. Although courses, which have been run since 1980 are offered in the English language, there is a French language option (which replaces European Business and Finance), and this program has helped us, from an organizational point of view, to develop the French Business Language and Environment program.

2. The teaching of upper-intermediate and advanced business language in English, German and Spanish. This teaching has led the Nantes Graduate

School's language department to develop courses in problem-solving exercises and case studies within a language context and area studies with a language content.

The French Business Language and Environment Program is intended for overseas students of any country (the first group of students came from the United States and Great Britian, but students from West Germany are expected in 1988) who have at least a good intermediate level of general French language proficiency. Although no previous knowledge of business and economics is necessary, it is obviously an advantage, as it permits a quicker assimilation of the language and concepts introduced in the program, which is of upper-intermediate/early-advanced level.

The program has three major objectives:

1. Permit students to acquire and use advanced French business language.
2. Allow students to gain a first-hand introduction to the economic and social environment of France.
3. Give students direct experience of living in a French environment.

In order to attain these objectives, which require a passage from theory and practice (previous knowledge acquired in the foreign country) to direct experience (using the language and seeing it used in its environment), we have adopted the following guiding principles:

1. A pragmatic approach. Students are forced to use the language constantly.

2. Examples are used as opposed to a theoretical, more academic approach.

3. Students are asked to plunge into their immediate environment to see the language and concepts being used.

4. Students are integrated into French society as fully as possible by living in and interacting with a French family.

5. Personal experience is of the utmost importance. Visits and personal research into the immediate environment are of as much importance as classwork.

The program is composed of three courses, all mandatory - French Business Language (60 hours), French Social Environment (21 hours), French Economic Environment (24 hours).

French Business Language

This course builds on students' available language bases and provides vocabulary, structure and simplified business concepts. The five main functional areas of business - marketing and sales, finance and accounting, human resource management, international business, strategy - are covered in three stages:

1. Input. Texts (both written and audio-visual), exercises (grammar and vocabulary in situation) and small problem-solving exercises are used predominantly to introduce vocabulary and business concepts.

2. Case studies. These are designed to put into practice the knowledge acquired in the first stage. The content matter is simplified, of a limited technical nature (from a business point of view - one thinks of

the problems created for a language student faced with a full finance case) and leads to several solutions. Each student is required to make an oral presentation (in groups of two or three), including a description of the problem, an analysis of possible solutions (evaluations of the advantages and disadvantages of each) and the choice of one.

The advantages of this form of exercise are twofold. First, they are practical and down to earth, which means that students are able to use everyday language, acquired during their earlier studies and which they have confidence in, and also the recently acquired business language and concepts. Second, they are natural in the sense that students are not asked to play a role and are all working towards the same objective, the solution of the problem set out in the case.

The main disadvantage is that students are not, in many cases, used to the case-study approach nor to solving practical problems. This can lead to difficulties of organization and of expression (students are afraid to put forward their ideas simply and directly).

French Social Environment

This course covers five areas. After an historical perspective of modern France, from a social, cultural and political point of view, students cover the sociology of the country and then look at the government and institutions, the media and education. Teaching is in the form of lectures and discussions, together with a series of visits (City Hall, the Regional Assembly, the local state television station, art exhibitions, libraries and the Chateaux of the Loire). The aim of the visits is to bring the material to life and to make the students aware of how their immediate environment fits into the overall life of the country. Students must also write a paper analysing some aspect of the social environment of France and they are encouraged to carry out their research in the local area.

French Economic Environment

The third course looks at different aspects of the French economy. Here the concept of showing examples is used to the full. After two general introductory lectures on the economy and the banking system all the other topics are dealt with through visits to companies and talks with top management -- Carrefour (distribution), Alcatel (hi-tech), CACI/World Trade Center (International Business), Port Autonome (Transportation), Nantes Chamber of Commerce (Economic Institutions). In this course, students can see the business language being used in its natural environment, can interact with French business people and can question the concepts they have learnt. All students also have to write a paper on some aspect of the French economy, with their starting point being one of the visits. This reinforces their interaction with the environment.

From the organizational point of view, classes are scheduled three and a half days each week (generally Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday morning), thus allowing students three and a half days to travel and visit other areas of France. This is consistent with the objective of allowing them to gain as much experience in their environment as possible.

This program has been designed for two types of participant. As stated above, one is the student who has a good level of French and who wants to acquire business French. It is not possible to accommodate beginners nor near beginners because of a heavy emphasis on participation at a fairly advanced level. It is preferable for beginners to participate in the Summer School in the English language, with the French language option. The second type of participant is the Professor of French, who wishes to acquire the business language and concepts, together with an introduction to teaching the case method in the language area.

In conclusion the three watchwords underlying this program are concepts which should be the basis of any business language program - acquisition, experience and participation - and concepts inherent to the teaching of any "langue vivante".

Biographical Information

Education

B.A. (Honours) University of Nottingham (UK)

French Language and Literature and Civilization

Maitrise - ES - Lettres (MA) Universite de Nantes (France)

English Literature and Civilization

Thesis on the Theatre of Harold Pinter

DEES (Doctoral degree) Universite de Nantes

Business Administration

Experience

1971-1974: Lecturer, Universite de Nantes

1974 to present: Nantes Graduate School of Business

Presently Associate Professor in Advanced Business Language

Since 1984: Director of International Programs

(Exchange programs, programs for overseas students in Nantes)

1980 - 1984: Chairman, Language Department

Extensive experience in teaching graduate students, overseas students, management development

"TRAINING FRENCH LANGUAGE STUDENTS FOR THE AMERICAN MULTINATIONAL: A SECOND LOOK"

Professor André J. Senécal
Department of Romance Languages
Waterman Building
The University of Vermont
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Work: 802 656 1372
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TITLE: "Training French Language Students for the American Multinational: A Second Look"

LENGTH OF PRESENTATION: 30-45 minutes

PRIMARY AUDIENCE: Language and business educators

SUMMARY: The presentation is based on a survey taken in 1987 of over 800 major American firms doing business in France. Corporations were asked to identify in details their needs for French speakers for assignment at home or to France. We obtained data on the number of employees assigned at home and overseas who needed to speak French, their role in the management structure, their title and responsabilities in France, the length and frequency of assignement overseas, years with the firm and history of corporate assignments and promotion, background in the French language and culture (when, where, under what circumstances did the subject become proficient in French, become knowledgeable about French corporate culture). In a second part, we asked the respondents to rate the language training of colleges and universities as it relates to their needs. We also asked whether or not they would turn to an American university for short, intensive language and/or cultural management training. We asked the firms to identify whom they turned to for such training.

The results of the survey were striking and unanticipated. They put into question the content of many so-called "Business French" language courses. They provide a working plan for revising this language curriculum and for creating and expanding courses in cross-cultural management.

THE TEACHING OF BUSINESS FRENCH IN ITS INTERACTION WITH LEGAL, ECONOMIC, POLITICAL AND CULTURAL REALITIES

by

Dr. Elisabeth Girod Branan

THE TEACHING OF BUSINESS FRENCH IN ITS INTERACTION WITH LEGAL, ECONOMIC, POLITICAL AND CULTURAL REALITIES

My purpose, in this paper, is to elaborate on the various methods which I have used to familiarize students with true business situations and also to make them grasp the fact that business, far from operating in a vacuum, interacts with a body of laws as well as a political and socio-economic environment.

DIVISION INTO GROUPS

In order to achive this objective, on the first day of class, I divide the students into groups of two or three. Each group is an enterprise with a name, a purpose and a legal status. As a result, any member of the newly created enterprise, when asked an "inquisitive" question from the professor, can find refuge behind the corporate veil. I found that this gimmick takes away a significant amount of inhibition and stage fright from the student.

STUDENTS ACTING AS CONSULTANT

To prepare the students to give a written consultation on which legal status is best adapted to their client (here an enterprise), I presented to the class a summary of their most current options under French law: mainly société en nom collectif, société à responsabilité limitée and société anonyme. Since commercial needs for an enterprise and their legal solutions vary little from one country to the next, I drew parallels between the U.S. concepts of limited partnership, general partnership and corporation and their close counterparts: société à responsabilité limitée, société en nom collectif and société anonyme.

After this comparative analysis, I gave the class a hypothetical situation whereby an enterprise, run by a family, was getting ready to launch a new product on the market. The spcific question each student had to resolve was how could this particular enterprise remain a fairly closed family entity, increase its capital and shelter its members from personal liability.

In this instance, I made clear to the students that they were to advise their client (enterprise) by giving it the pros and the cons of each of the available options. The goal was for the client to reach its own informed decision on the basis of the arguments offered to it. The students, over all, showed an excellent grasp of the concepts and were quite convincing in spite of the facts their arguments varied.

MOCK ARBITRATION PROCEDURE

The mock arbitration which was acted out in class is another means for the students to present opposing arguments in a convincing way. I intend to spend more time on this particular exercise, because I have found it to be one of the most effective pedagogical tools. This class activity was part of the general framework of Sales. I took advantage of the topic to supplement the students' knowledge with product liability and warranty law. Since the majority of my students are composed of International Management students, I thought it proper to give them an overview of their potential liability for putting on the market a defective product.

We, therefore, discussed the notion of defect and covered the different ways a product can be called defective. Then we talked about ways to protect the consumer who has been injured by a defective product. It is in this context that the arbitration procedure was introduced.

I thus divided the class in groups of three. In each group, there was a consumer who had purchased a defective automobile, a dealership representative who had agreed to submit the claim to arbitration, and one arbitrator. Here are the guidelines suggested to the students:

1) The arbitrator greets the protagonists

2) The arbitrator turns first to the claimant (consumer) and asks him/her questions regarding the facts supporting the claim. The arbitrator is already cognizant of the file, but he/she must hear the consumer's version of the facts. The arbitrator may ask for more documents evidencing the facts presented to him/her.

3) The arbitrator then summarizes the facts as understood by him/her.

4) The other party may wish to interrupt because he/she disagrees. It is then the role of the arbitrator to keep him/her quiet until his/her turn to speak.

5) The arbitrator then turns to the other party and follows the same procedure.

6) The arbitrator again addresses the consumer and asks him/her what results he/she seeks to obtain from the procedure.

7) Interruptions are likely to occur, and it is again the arbitrator's role to keep the conflicting parties under control.

8) The arbitrator then turns to the dealership representative to find out what concessions, if any, the dealership is ready to make.

9) The arbitrator tries to reconcile the two viewpoints, emphasizing what they have in common, and then thanks both parties for submitting their claims to arbitration. The final decision is never given to the parties at the end of the arbitration session (available on video).

ANGRY CONSUMER COMPLAINTS

Still in relation to the field of product liability and consumer protection, I made students write or act out angry consumer complaints to the customer service department. The students showed tremendous creativity and humour in this particular exercise (available on video).

Students love to compete. I therefore use this competitive spirit in angry consumer letter contests as well as in selling technique contests (available in video).

The use of a video camera in these instances provides the students with an opportunity to hear their speech, watch their body language and judge their overall performance.

ACTIVITIES INCORPORATING THE LEARNING OF NEW VOCABULARY AND TECHNOLOGY

With the objective of incorporating the latest technology in the field of French telecommunications, I had the students act out a telephone conversation between the telecommunications representative and an individual. This was an opportunity for the telecommunications attendant to advertize the multiple uses of the French Minitel and to end up selling a blind date service to his/her correspondant who admitted being single.

Regarding the subject of Insurance, the students did crosswords puzzles using basic insurance terms and wrote extraordinary accident reports (available on video). Furthermore, they created quite interesting sketches. In one of them, an insurance broker met with the representatives of a corporation, told them about the vulnerability of corporations due to the so called "deep pocket theory" and finally persuaded them to significantly increase their product liability insurance (available on video).

WAYS TO DIVERSIFY AND ENLARGE CLASS MATERIALS

Each of the students has been assigned three oral reports whose topics are taken from Le Monde, L'Express or Le Point. They must summarize the articles read on a subject related to French Business and Economy and be ready to answer questions from their audience.

Since business is part of a country's economy, it is affected by government policy decisions. I consequently found it useful to illustrate this particular aspect in France by presenting to the class arguments which historically have been offered to support a policy of nationalization, and also reasons which led to a more recent move toward denationalization. The students had a debate over the issue.

Finally, to provide the class with additional insight on some of the French 'yuppies', we read excerpts from L'Imprecateur (R.V. Pilhes, Ed. le Seuil, 1975).

OTHER SAMPLES OF WRITTEN ASSIGNMENTS: correspondence and papers

In order for the students to appreciate the peculiarity of doing business in France, I multiplied exercises of correspondence between the fictitious enterprises until the students' style, in certain situations, became second nature to them and, after a while, triggered an automatic response to the same stimulus.

In addition, the chapter on Publicity has fully revealed the true creative ability of the class. Each enterpise had to write a marketing study on a brand new product. I gave again strict guidelines:

1) How the idea came about
2) The analysis of the idea
3) Market analysis: Offer and Demand
4) Commercialization of the product: media used and slogan

The results, as mentioned earlier, showed a tremendous level of ingenuity. Let me cite for example:

AD, Acces Decoration, which is a software system made available to architects and interior decorators;

Impogiciel, which makes the payment of taxes nearly a joy for computer owners;

Climatrole, a remote control device, which allows a car owner to start his/her car under any weather conditions;

Feijoa, the newly imported tropical fruit, which is destined to capitalize on health and sophistication;

Last, but not least, Bubbly, the new Champagne whose uniqueness and subtelty of taste are such that one may overlook the occasional explosion of its bottles.

I will end, therefore, this pedagogical report on this bubbly note because I can't think of a more appropriate way to pay homage to my students' endearing cooperation throughout this class.

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RATIONALE AND METHODOLOGY OF A BUSINESS FRENCH COURSE: BLAZING NEW TRAILS

by

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RATIONALE AND METHODOLOGY OF A
BUSINESS FRENCH COURSE:
BLAZING NEW TRAILS

Although there has been an increased awareness nationwide of the need for developing university courses designed to teach the specialized vocabulary and stylistic skills of the French business world, a few states have yet to make any significant effort in this direction. The State of Utah is one of these. Utah State University, a land-grant university with federally-funded research projects in French-speaking countries, is just beginning to realize the potential for such training for its faculty and students involved in these projects.

Prior to beginning my retraining programs in business French, I interviewed the director of a substantial range management research project and his secretary. This project has been operating for years in Morocco. They expressed dismay over the inability of the staff and students to communicate effectively with the Moroccans involved in the project. Even those staff and students who had completed many years of general coursework in French at the university level and had been to France did not have the linguistic skills and command of vocabulary required for dealing with these French-speaking businessmen. They were surprised to learn that the French business world has its own vocabulary and expressions which are not usually taught in the traditional university or high school

French course, and they urged me to establish a course that would provide this kind of training. In response to this need, I presented a course in business French at USU in Spring Quarter of 1987. This was the first course of this kind to be presented in the State of Utah. Other courses at USU have included some vocabulary and general concepts about business and one even presents the computer and its uses in the French-speaking world. None, however, has ever been devoted entirely to business French before.

This course is built on the premise that anyone wishing to work or even just live in a French-speaking country for a period of time needs to know the specialized vocabulary and expressions he will encounter at work, at the store, at the bank, at the post office, and so on. He also needs to be acquainted with the organization and functioning of French businesses, and their relationship with the government. He should also be able to perform the kinds of tasks that any educated citizen needs to do: writing checks, applying for a job, writing a resume, corresponding with businesses, filing an insurance complaint, *etc*. The purpose of this course is not to create experts in the field of business but to help the students learn to function like any educated French citizen.

The text used in the course was *French for Business*: *Le Francais des Affaires* by Claude Le Goff (Paris: Hatier, 1986). This book is intended to prepare students to take the exams offered by the Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris, but it also provides a well-written and well-organized introduction to business French in general. This book was chosen because the vocabulary and business concepts are incorporated into texts that can be readily understood by third-year French students and are also presented in a narrative form designed to hold their interest. The students could easily identify with the main character: an American student with an MBA working on an internship in a French firm in order to learn the French system. This character asks the kinds of questions the students would need to ask in a similar situation. Through the conversations between this person and the French people around him, the students not only learn the basic facts about the French system but also the similarities and differences between the French and American systems.

The text also contains supplemental readings drawn from authentic business publications. Most of these are too difficult for third-year students to read, but they would be very useful for classes with advanced students with considerable business expertize or classes of businessmen and women. After each chapter in the book, there is a set of vocabulary exercises based upon actual past exams given by the Chambre de Commerce de Paris. These were assigned to the students as homework and then they were corrected in class. These proved to be quite difficult because the style is more that of authentic business French; whereas, the readings present business concepts in a more conversational style.

During the class discussions, the students received several handouts with additional information and exercises to perform. These were drawn from a variety of sources and were designed to help the students understand the concepts presented by the text and to provide them with the opportunity of practicing writing important business documents. During the discussion on the bank and its services, the students received more detailed information about how to write a French check[1] and were given two blank checks to fill out. One of these had the amount and the receiver specified,[2] but the students were to fill out the other one imagining this information.[3] During the discussion on commercial correspondence, the students were given a form showing where the various parts of a commercial letter are placed on the page and then they were given a sample letter and instructed to rewrite the letter changing the wording only slightly and placing all of the parts of the letter in the correct position on the page. The students were then given a list of the correct formulas to use and were asked to choose other expressions to substitute for those in the model.[4] When the discussion centered around writing letters of application for a job and resumes, the students were given advertisements of job openings taken from current issues of Le Monde and a model letter of application with a resume.[5] They were then asked to chose a job that fit their qualifications, to write a letter applying for it and to attach a resume of their qualifications to the letter. From this exercise, the students learned not only how to apply for a job in French but also what kinds of jobs are available in France and what kinds of skills potential workers need to have in order to find one there.

When the discussion centered around the form and organization of French businesses, the students were given handouts with schematic representations to help them learn the various legal forms.[6] They also played a game in which six students were chosen to represent six different French or American firms. The rest of the class had to guess the companies represented by the students by asking questions about the legal form of the firm, the number and the responsability of the partners, the ease of liquidation, the kind of management, the kind of commercial activities, the site of the home office, the number of workers, and the extent of the markets.[7] Only famous firms like IBM and Renaud and a few well-known local firms were used so that the students did not have any trouble guessing the names of the businesses.

As the students studied about the purchasing department, they copied model letters for making an offer to sell merchandise, sending a letter asking for further information, and a letter ordering items.[8] When the class discussed the sales department, the students received a handout explaining the various stages of a sale,[9] and practiced filling out a packing slip and a bill.[10] During the discussion of importation and exportation, they learned what balance of payments means[11] and how imported goods are paid for with a letter of exchange.[12]

While discussing the accounting department, the students also learned what a balance sheet is.[13] While studying the services of the PTT (post office), the students also learned how postal checks work and how to fill out a money order.[14] During the discussion of the stock exchange, they learned the difference between stocks and bonds.[15]

While reading about how French insurance companies function, the students were given a sample letter for submitting a claim to an insurance company for an automobile accident.[16] They were asked to imagine another accident and rewrite the letter changing the details. This was the most creative writing project of the quarter with the students' making up fantastic "accidents;" some located in France, others in the students' hometowns, some with multiple fatalities (including the claim writer for one) and others with minor damage and no injuries. The students included diagrams to illustrate the circumstances surrounding the "accident."

All of these written activities were practical applications of the theoretical concepts the students were learning. All were controlled exercises with the students carefully following models and choosing, from a list, the necessary formulas for acceptable business correspondence in French.

The students were given only controlled writing exercises for two reasons. First, the course was only one quarter long and was not concentrated on business correspondence, and so the students did not have sufficient time to become familiar enough with these formulas in order to use them in freer writing exercises. Secondly, because there is such a difference between French and English in tone, in approach, and in the use of language in business correspondence and because these students had had very little or no background in French business correspondence, it was felt that they needed to spend what little time they had for writing developing a feel for proper French business correspondence; otherwise, they would likely revert to English letter-writing techniques which would not be acceptable.

In addition to these writing and reading assignments, the students were given two oral assignments--one to be given individually and the other in a group. Each student was asked to present to the class an article he had read on a business or economics related topic. The article could be drawn from the supplementary readings in the text, from the business section of the Journal Francais d'Amerique, or from some other business source. A foreign student from Mauritania, who is working for an oil-producing company, explained the organization and operation of his company to the group. Another foreign student from Senegal explained an article on the use of computers in agricultural engineering taken from one of her Senegalese textbooks. Another student, also interested in computers, explained how the MiniTel system functions and is being used in France. Other students talked about subsidiaries of French firms in the U.S., about the increasing interest in the stock market among the French, and other very current topics. Through these reports, the students became much more aware of the extent and importance of the French business world in France, in relation to the American business world, and in the international community. They began to appreciate France as a nation of creative thinkers and producers of high technology, of researchers on the frontiers of knowledge, and not just as producers of "accordions, berets, wine, and cheese."

The final oral assignment of the quarter was for the students to work together in groups and imagine their own businesses. They had to decide the product they would make, or the service they would provide, the legal form of the firm, its location, how it would be financed for its short-term and its long-term needs, where it would sell, to whom, and why, the kind of advertising it would use and why, the organization of the company, its divisions, departments, and factories, what insurance it would carry and why, if it would export goods or not, the means of shipping goods, and so on. The students spent a week meeting in their groups to plan their companies. Then they presented them to the entire class in lieu of a final exam. In these presentations, the students brought together all of the material they had learned throughout the quarter, and applied it to their own firms. The students enjoyed playing "entrepreneur" and creating their own businesses, and they were very creative, especially in their advertising. Some presented dramatisations for television advertising their firm, others showed ads for magazines and newspapers. One group imagined a jewelry store, another tourist visits of Paris by hot air baloon, another a health-food restaurant, a consumer journal, and so on. They were graded on the completeness of their presentation, their knowledge of business French, their willingness to participate, and their enthusiasm. All students did well in all categories, and their presentations were generally entertaining and informative even if they were not as complete as they might have been. They displayed a fundamental knowledge of business French which revealed that they had benefited from the course. The students were graded on the written assignments (20%), the oral assignments (20%), and the vocabulary and structure tests which were given during the quarter (60%).

In preparing and implementing this course, I encountered several problems. The most difficult problem was choosing a text which would fit into the quarter system (10 weeks), would appeal to students of varied backgrounds in business and varied abilities in French, and yet would provide solid information in an entertaining and lively manner. Most texts are either too general in subject matter and thus they are really French culture texts with a little business vocabulary added, or they are very theoretical in nature, too long to be covered in ten weeks, and not appealing to students, or else they are so firmly situated in the French culture that the students can not see parallels between their own culture and the French and can not see themselves involved in the French system in any way. The Le Goff text seemed to provide the best solution to this problem.

Another difficult problem was student attitude. Because these students had been trained in French through the natural method, TPR, role-playing, and other activity-oriented methods, they were not accustomed to studying serious subjects in French. Many wanted to be entertained rather than learn about the French business world. They thoroughly enjoyed the creative activities they were given but balked at the task of learning new, specialized vocabulary. One student stated that he felt like he was back in French 101. The students seemed reluctant to admit that their vocabularies were limited and, as a result, were unwilling to expand them. They also seemed unwilling to change their attitudes about France preferring to keep their stereotyped images in tact.

The most frustrating problem to overcome, however, and one that continues today, is the apathy of the university administrators and most faculty, especially in the business field, towards the importance of learning foreign languages in general and especially of increasing the marketability of their students by preparing them to enter the international job market. In spite of the fact that Utah has a substantial Spanish-speaking population, and that the Mormon Church (the dominant religion) trains thousands of missionaries in foreign languages before sending them abroad, university officials and business leaders statewide still do not see foreign language training and especially specialized training for business and the

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professions as an essential part of the education of the leaders of the future. The course described in this paper had to be presented under an existing course number assigned to a seminar and was labelled "Seminar in French Literature" in the catalog and in the bulletin. This caused considerable difficulties with students who thought they were signing up for a literature course and were not pleased that they would be learning business French! Yet, they were not able to change their registration because of class conflicts. I have been working since early fall to get this course accepted as a regular part of the university curriculum with its own number and accurate title. I just found out recently that it has finally been accepted.

The last problem which still needs to be solved is the lack of sufficient time devoted to this course. One quarter is simply not enough time to accomplish the modest goals set for this course and certainly not to adequately prepare the students for taking the Chambre de Commerce exams-which I would like to do in the future. As has been noted earlier, there is not enough time for developing writing skills for business correspondance. Nor is there time to develop telephone skills which are an essential part of the business world. There is also not adequate time to delve deeply enough into some topics, such as the role of the French government in the business world or the economic situation in France. The course needs to be at least two quarters or one semester long in order to do justice to the subject matter and to benefit the students. Certainly the trails to Utah business French have not yet been completed, but they have at least been begun!

NOTES

1. Taken from Michel Danilo _et al._, _Le Francais Commercial_ (Paris: Presses Pocket, 1985) 87.

2. Taken from Claude Le Goff, _French for Business_: _Le Francais des Affaires_ (Paris: Hatier International, 1986) 11.

3. Taken from Denise Guback, _Francais Commercial_: _Theorie et Correspondance_ (New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1984) 61.

4. Guback, 23, 35-36.

5. Taken from Jeannette D. Bragger and Donald B. Rice, _Allons-Y_: _Le Francais par etapes_ (Boston, Mass.: Heinle & Heinle, Inc., 1984) 455, and _Le Monde_ 17 mars, 1987, dern. ed.: 23-37, and _Le Monde_ 18 mars, 1987, dern. ed.: 24-34.

6. Danilo, 6, 14-15.

7. Taken from a handout prepared by participants in the intensive seminar in teaching business French held at the Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris in the summer of 1985.

8. Guback, 62-63, 71-72.

9. Danilo, 51.

10. Guback, 135-137.

11. Danilo, 148-149.

12. Guback, 11.

13. Danilo, 107.

14. Guback, 41-42, 44-46.

15. Danilo, 96-97.

16. Le Goff, 97-99.

SELECTED RESOURCE MATERIALS

Background Reading

Brémond, G. *La Révolution informatique*. Collection J. Brémond. Paris: Hatier, 1983.

Brémond, G. et J. *L'Economie française face aux défis mondiaux*. Collection J. Brémond. Paris: Hatier, 1985.

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De Closets, Francois. *Toujours plus!* Paris: Editions Grasset et Fasquelle, 1982.

L'Etat de la France et de ses habitants. Sous la direction de Jean-Yves Potel. Paris: Editions La Découverte, 1985.

Dictionaries and Translation and Correspondance Tools

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Harrap's French and English Business Dictionary. Eds. Francoise Laurendeau, Jane Pratt, Peter Collin. London: Harrap, 1981.

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Redfern, James. *Basic Terms of Business and Finance*. Lanham, Maryland: University Press of America, 1984.

Reix, Robert. *Parler bureautique et télématique*. Paris: Les

Editions Foucher, 1985.

Sergent, Madeleine and Kay Wilkins. *A Translation Textbook*. Lanham, Maryland: University Press of America, 1985.

Teaching Techniques

Bragger, Jeannette D. and Donald B. Rice. *Allons-Y*: *Le Français par étapes*. Boston, Mass.: Heinle & Heinle, Inc., 1984.

Cresson, Bernard. *Introduction au français commercial*. Paris: Librairie Marcel Didier, 1972.

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Oudot, Simone and David L. Gobert. *La France:* *Culture, économie, commerce*: *An Introduction to Business French*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1984.

INTENSIVE FRENCH LANGAUAGE TRAINING FOR FUNCTIONAL USE

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ECOLE CENTRALE DE LYON

The Ecole Centrale de Lyon experienced language barrier problems as huge obstacles to the success of our joint study programs for years. Exchange agreements had been signed by Centrale with the Universities of Darmstadt in 1968, Salford in 1975, Cornell in 1984 and Galway in 1985 (and four other universities since then). The foreign students participating in these exchanges at Centrale often had severe adaptation problems during the first three months of their studies. They were given no special orientation program or advising and were, quite frankly, thrown into our system and expected to adapt. Although they had a basic background in French, students frequently misunderstood instructions, could not correctly formulate questions and found that the French students did not want them on research teams because too much time was lost on explanations. Furthermore, it was found that foreign students could not write up their research results clearly enough and the French students complained of having to do their own lab reports plus those of the exchange students.

I suggested the creation of an intensive French program to resolve some of these problems and proposed an intensive training session that would be held before the school year would begin. This would enable foreign exchange students to participate in a total immersion program in French in order to facilitate their adaptation to our engineering courses taught exclusively in French. Moreover having these students on campus before the arrival of the French students would allow us to give them an orientation session tailored to their special needs. Permission was granted to begin a course the following Fall.

About 25 students participate in our exchange programs and represent five nationalities: American, British, German, Indonesian and

Irish. Their backgrounds in the French language are highly varied but their needs are the same: they must be able to function comfortably enough in French to live for a year in France and successfully participate in engineering courses taught exclusively in French.

In the Spring of 1986 I began interviewing professors, students and other exchange program administrators to determine the parameters of an intensive program in French. Professors furnished articles in their fields that could be studied for comprehension and grammar reinforcement while at the same time providing technical vocabulary. These professors claimed that they could not understand what the students were trying to say on their exams and that students could not formulate questions well enough to let the professors know what they didn't understand. Students emphasized a need to know how to function in French society; this included having French institutions explained to them and learning vocabulary that would allow them to evolve in every day situations. They also wanted to learn to write technical reports in French.

Armed with this knowledge I set about creating an intensive program in French with a strong emphasis on functional use of the language. The goals, representing the opinions of both professors and students, were to prepare students to understand highly technical engineering courses taught in French and to provide them with the verbal skills necessary to function on a day to day basis. In order to achieve this they would need a basic review of French grammar and a strong emphasis on oral participation and comprehension skills.

As a prerequisite for participation in the following year's exchange program, students are required to take a course in conversational French at their respective universities for at least one semester before they come to Centrale. This is because most engineering programs place little or no emphasis at all on language courses and, more often than not, these exchange students have had no exposure to French courses for several years. This tends to help homogenize the level of French of the participants.

I chose a three week - 30 hour per week internship because it was the longest our school calendar could accommodate. Experience has shown this to be a very practical choice because it is sufficient to prepare students to affront the school year and is the maximum amount of intensive training they can handle before burnout. In three weeks I can cover a general grammar review and place emphasis on developing listening, oral and written competency. The students have all been able to easily participate in their engineering courses after these 3 weeks. Since the intensive program started in 1986 there have been no dropouts and all the students have successfully terminated their year of studies at Centrale. Previously about 20% of the students either dropped out or attended classes but did not take exams and complete their year of study at Centrale.

The following chart is a sample 30 hour week. The reader will note that each day is divided into two parts - 3 hours of grammar reinforcement and 3 hours of conversation and oral comprehension directed to the group's needs.

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9 am 10 am	DICTATION - 20 min. Correction - 20 min. Correction of Friday's homework exercises. 20 min.	Corrections of written summary handed in on Monday - 20 min. Dictation on equations 20 min. Correction 20 min.	Dictation 20 min. Correction 20 min. Correction of Tuesday's take home grammar exercices.	Corrections of written summary handed in on Wednesday . 20 min. Improvisational sketches 40 min.	Dictation 20 min. Correction 20 min. Correction of homework on the negative construction 20 min.
10 am 11 am	Review of Past Tense and agreements. Work sheets in class.60 min.	Improvisational sketches 60 min.	Review of the Imperfect/Past Tense. Work sheets in class. 80 min.	Read part of a scientific article and guess at the conclusion. Then read the conclusion together.60 min	Review of the Subjunctive. Work sheets in class 60 min.
11 am 12 am	Laboratory exercises	Laboratory- oral/aural comprehension.	Laboratory exercises	Laboratory oral comprehension.	Laboratory exercises
H	Exercises in the Past Tense.	Written summary	Exercises in the Imperfect Past Tense.	Written summary	Exercises in the Subjunctive
		LUNCH		BREAK	
1 pm 2 pm	Corrections of written summary handed in on Friday - 20 min. physical descriptions of people and objects. 40 min.	Dictation - 20 min. Correction - 20 min. Correction of homework on the Past Tense - 20 min.	Corrections of written summary handed in on Tuesday - 20 min. Dialogues to be constitued from a series of cartoons 40 min.	Dictation - 20 min. Correction - 20 min. Correction of homework on the Imperfect/Past Tense 20 min.	Corrections of written summary handed in on Thursday's - 20 min. Improvisational sketches 40 min.
2 pm 3 pm	Improvisational sketches	Review of reflexives and agreements. Work sheets in class.	Improvisational sketches	Review of negation Work sheets in class	Oral presentations of a scientific article (5X12 min.)
3 pm 4 pm	Laboratory- oral/aural comprehension.	Laboratory exercises	Laboratory- oral/aural comprehension	Laboratory exercises	Laboratory - oral comprehension
U	Written summary	Exercises on reflexives	Written summary	Exercises on negation	Written summary

In the grammar part the opening dictation is a review of the previous lesson's grammar point and serves as its reinforcement. Twenty minutes is devoted to the dictation (a reading of the text, then its dictation and finally a rereading). This forces the students to conceptualize what they hear and choose the right word among similar sounding words according to the context of the text. This is followed by the correction of the sentences the students have put on the board. In this way students can correct their own texts in relation to the corrected text on the board and can ask questions when they don't understand their individual mistakes. When the grammar is straightforward and doesn't require, for example, agreements, I give them a dictation where they have to choose the tense for a given verb. An additional twenty minutes are spent orally correcting the previous night's homework of written exercises on the grammar point covered the day before in class. These elements constitute the first hour of class.

The second hour is composed of a review of a new grammar point which the students have been asked to revise before class. I often make the students give me the rule or rules and provide examples. Then work sheets are distributed composed of fill in the blank sentences using the grammar just reviewed.

The final hour is devoted to laboratory exercises where the students hear part of a sentence and must complete it using the grammar they have been working on for the past hour. Here the students get practical experience in the use of each particular grammar point and the repetition involved allows them at the same time to focus on their pronunciation. I can monitor their progress, correct their pronunciation and stop them from going on to the next exercise when I feel that they have not fully mastered the one they are working on.

Together with an hour's worth of written homework on the day's grammar point, each student spends 3 hours every day on a new grammar lesson and 40 minutes on the former one (the day's dictation).

Such a heavy emphasis on grammar can lead to a short attention span. This can be forestalled by giving the students practical contexts in which this grammar point is needed. I try to build the grammar exercises around the upcoming improvisation sketches and this has the added advantage of giving them set phrases to work with.

The oral comprehension and conversation part of the day begins with a 20 minute discussion of the corrections of the summaries of scientific articles the students have turned in the previous day. Then forty minutes to an hour is spent on role-playing sketches. Here students are given some basic sentences and vocabulary and asked to improvise a sketch in a situation in which they will find themselves (at the Préfecture where they must get residency papers or in a classroom where they must ask a question or explain an answer to a professor).

This is an occasion for the students to relax while still learning. This exercise is clearly aimed at helping the foreign students' insertion in the society around them. The teacher can use this occasion to explain French institutions and how they work (e.g. banking - how to open a banking or checking account; universities - how to complete enrollment procedures). Once the students have a sufficient background, they can be placed in practical situations and given the opportunity to use what they have just learned.

Sometimes I give the students a technical scientific article in French and ask them to prepare a 12 minute summary for oral presentation in class. They appreciate this opportunity to get experience speaking before a group of people.

The last hour of this part of the day is devoted to aural comprehension. Students are shown a videocassette recording of the previous night's newscast and asked to summarize it. Attention is drawn to details they miss and cultural phenomena are explained. In the last week of the training session I often remove the visual support and give them a one half hour recording of a radio newcast. Sometimes I even give them a worksheet to fill in after they have listened to the broadcast. If they are given the worksheet before listening to the news, they listen only for certain details and often cannot provide an overview of the subject after listening to it.

The weather forecast can be used to reinforce number acquisition. I give them a sheet with the names of various cities in France on it (I scramble the order so that it does not match that given by the announcer). While listening to the forecast they must fill in the temperature predicted for each city.

Another useful technique is to either tape in advanced mathematics lecture or set a dictation on equations. Since French engineering education is very theoretical in scope, mathematical equations are part of almost every engineering course. This exercise allows the students to become familiar with mathematical vocabulary while at the same time reviewing numbers.

It will be noted that the grammar and the conversation and oral segments of the training session are alternated. I found this to work better than putting the grammar in the morning and conversation in the afternoon or vice-versa. The two teachers benefit from this because they can plan two types of lessons and not be locked into just grammar preparation or just oral/aural preparation. In effect, each teacher has written summaries to correct every other day and grammar work sheets to prepare every other day (providing that only one teacher teaches all the morning or all the afternoon classes). The students benefit from having two different styles of presentation for each segment and each teacher is thus given the opportunity to evaluate the students' practical use of the language and is then better prepared to direct lessons to the students' needs.

After the 3 week intensive program the students are given a 2 hour per week class in French composition throughout the entire school year to help them write up lab reports and mini-thesis projects. Additional grammar rules are explained and some listening work is also included.

Although this internship was implemented for students participating in our exchange programs, I have increasingly been approached by members of other sectors of the educational spectrum who wish to participate. One Joint Study Program administrator from the University of Berlin sat in on my course this year. Since our exchange agreements provide for an exchange of professors as well as students, he felt that this intensive program could help him polish his French enough to come to Centrale and give two weeks of class lectures in French. My J.S.P. colleague from the University of Salford (G.B.) is planning to do the same next Fall.

The Rhone-Alpes region is finding itself becoming a host to an ever increasing amount of American companies or their subsidiaries who open up offices here staffed by Americans. Rhone-Poulenc, which just bought over a part of Union Carbide, and Hewlett Packard, to name only two, have each brought over ten American families to Lyon. None of these American citizens spoke French before coming here and all dreaded having to function for several years in a culture in which they could not participate because of a language barrier. The companies agreed to subsidize beginning French lessons at the Alliance Française but consulted me for ideas on facilitating the insertion of these families more quickly into French society afterwards.

I proposed two different variations of my intensive training session. The first, designed for businessmen, would place an emphasis on business French, giving them background in business voçabulary, teaching them how to compose business letters in French, how to negotiate in French and placing them in improvisational business situations in which they are likely to find themselves. Executives of both firms provided written support materials to be used for article summaries, sample contracts to work with and ideas for improvisational sketches. The grammar part of the program would be the same as for the student engineers but support exercises would be directed to a business context.

The second variation of the intensive program was designed for the wives of these twenty businessmen. While most French companies have employees who speak some English and the American businessmen would have someone to talk to while at work, their wives would be faced with finding an apartment or a house, with enrolling children in schools, shopping, taking children to the doctor, etc. In most of these situations finding English speaking merchants or professionals is not easy and only postpones adaptation to the French language. In order to make these women feel more at ease in French, I proposed a program based on functional vocabulary of everyday situations they would be facing with written texts on French institutions to reinforce comprehension not only of the written text but of the institution as well. Improvisational sketches are based on situations in stores, real estate agencies, banks, schools, doctors' offices, etc. The grammar part of the program would again be the same as for the student engineers but would be directed to functional support exercises.

The basic structure of this intensive language program allows it to be easily adapted to the needs of the various professions. A creative imagination, together with discussions with professionals, in the targeted fields, allows for the determining of the parameters of these internships. Once the needs have been established and understood, all non-grammar parts of the language program can be chosen around a well-defined theme and used to reinforce language acquisition for functional use.

Régine Lambrech

RETRAINING FRENCH LANGUAGE EDUCATORS IN THE TEACHING OF COMMERCIAL FRENCH

by

Professor Rose Marie A. Marfurt
University of Missouri

Title: Retraining French Language Educators in the Teaching of Commercial French

Length of presentation: 15 minutes

Audience: French language educators of colleges and junior colleges

Summary:

This paper focuses on the implementation of a retraining program for language educators wanting to teach commercial French on the college level.

This course may be taught in five 5-hour weekend seminars or in a two week summer seminar of 12 hours per week.

Since the teachers already have a high language competence and a sound basis in grammar and stylistics, the course will focus strictly on building up the confidence and interest for the subject matter of the teachers by showing them methodologies and techniques of this new subject. The course content will encompass the concise but complete treatment of the principles governing both French business writing in general and specific types of business communications.

Stressed will be the infrastructure of the economy of France and other French speaking countries: industry, trade and the transportation system. Furthermore the services rendered, supporting the system: customs, banking, stockmarket and insurance.

A new approach to teaching contemporary French culture will be the exposure of the students to video-taped subjects of business life in the foreign countries and to French press releases which show important political and economic events in a different light. The students will be taught how to pay constant attention to current business news, and thus to remain in close touch with the real world of business.

In addition to the written communication, the paper stresses the exposure to the reading of texts on modern cultural aspects of French speaking countries and the study of political and socio-economic institutions, focusing on the special terminology and on the oral rendering of all these aspects.

Retraining French language teachers to greater mobility seems to be a revitalizing factor in foreign language teaching.

RETRAINING FRENCH LANGUAGE EDUCATORS IN THE TEACHING OF COMMERCIAL FRENCH

Rose Marie A. Marfurt
University of Missouri-Kansas City

Our world which is becoming more and more interdependent suggests new trends in language teaching to foreign language educators, and motivates them to explore a field to which many have not been exposed before.

My paper focuses on the implementation of a retraining program for language educators interested in French language instruction geared to commerce and economy, and who wish to teach this special language on the junior college or college level.

Since the instructors of French enter the course perfectly equipped with a high language competence, the course content can focus strictly on exposing them to the infrastructure of the economy of France, on the services rendered which support the economic system, and on the concise treatment of the principles governing specific types of business communication. In addition to the written and oral communication, the students will be exposed to video-taped subjects of business life in France and to French press releases which deal with important political and economic events.

This course may be structured as five 5-hour weekend seminars, or as a two-week summer seminar, comprising 25 hours of class instruction. Given the rather extensive subject matter, I suggest to present first the infrastructure of the French economy, wherein I include the industry, the agriculture and the trade. In the second part of the course, the focus will lie on the services which are rendered by banks, insurance companies and the stock exchange.

The following represents a selection of some class activities and examples of assignments which are supported by handouts. Reference, indicating useful sources for designing a course of such nature, concludes this article.

I usually start the first class period of the day with a presentation of a video-taped or pre-recorded topic on a certain sector of the French economy. Although the students have not been exposed to the special terminology before watching the video, the visual and the verbal signal could make comprehension a great deal easier than when relying only on the taped radio broadcast. After the first exposure to the content of the video-taped topic, the special terminology will be discussed in detail in relation to the entire text. Now the student will be asked to give an oral rendering of the content, stressing the main objectives of the topic. Summarizing the text, which will stress selection of key concepts, and distinction between main and secondary ideas, will be the assignment for the following day.

Another class period is devoted to the translation of a current article, in this specific case from France Magazine, "The Paris Bourse"; handout I. It is an interesting article on the amazing changes in the world of finance. The preparation of the special vocabulary will be done in class in order to make the students aware of the merely structural meaning of the words given in dictionaries, i.e., signs in isolation, out of context and situation. After completion of the vocabulary list, the students will then translate segments of the text, an operation which involves transferring from English into French all elements of meaning, ensuring that they retain their relative importance in the translation, and taking into account the differences that exist between the source language culture and that of the target language. Faults in the translation of a single word will rapidly become apparent. For example, the word pit in "trading pit" cannot be translated by the French word "fosse", it simply means the brokers' central enclosure in the Paris stockexchange, "la corbeille"; "Quotation" does not translate into "citation", but rather into "cote" or "cotation".

During the first class period of the following day, students will take turns in presenting a sight-translation of the English text. Since listening comprehension is an important skill, the second part of the session will focus on a taped documentary dealing in this specific case with "La nouvelle France rurale"; handout II. It may be played several times, and can be broken into segments in order to grasp all the details. An exercise to test comprehension, for example, filling in the blanks with words or wordgroups, will conclude the presentation of the documentary; handout III.

In the last class period, the student will listen one more time to a previously assigned taped recording, in this specific case, an article written by Christian Stoffaës, professor at the "Institut d'études politiques de Paris", dealing with "Les spécialisations technologiques et sectorielles de la France"; handout IV. After having carefully summarized the article, the students will give oral answers to the questions referring to the underlined words or passages; handout V for the French questions, for example

1. Why is the French status very unfavorable with regard to raw materials and energy sources?
2. What is her position with regard to hydroelectric power and uranium?
3. In which sectors did France reach autonomy?
4. What food products does France export and are they exported as packed or unpacked (bulk) goods?
5. In what domain is there still some inadequacy?
6. In what sector do we observe a slight deterioration of the trade balande?
7. Why do we observe a constant deterioration of the trade balance for consumer goods?
8. In what sector is there a great disparity of performance?
9. Give details about the car industry.

This article contains a variety of facts on the French industry; an extensive vocabulary list will have to be prepared by the students before answering the questions.

In this paper I can expose only to some extent the material which is covered in this seminar. But I consider it important to set aside a certain amount of class time to discuss extra-linguistic rules of communication, and to show the students the subtleties and complexities not otherwise considered. They should know how to feel their way into close contact with French attitudes and values, e.g., social distance, values of space and time, humor and traditions. All these factors are important and could be useful for the understanding of the code of behavior in the French business world.

The goal of the second part of the seminar is to introduce the student to the services which support the economic system, and which are rendered by banks, the stock exchange and insurance companies, as well as to the principles governing specific types of written communication. I limit myself to the correspondence dealing with banking and the insurance business. I base myself on very valuable sources of information given by Swiss banks and insurance companies.

I would like to expose the approach I use in introducing a banking transaction, i.e., the issuance and honoring of letters of credit, which deal with the settling of intercontinental financial transactions.

Step 1. A taped introduction to this chapter will familiarize the student with this subject. It will be played first in its entirety and then in several segments, so that the student can list the new terminology; handouts VI, VIa, VIb.

Step 2. After having listened to the tape several times, the students will select the best completion of the sentences and translate segments of the text into English; handout VII.

Step 3. The students will answer questions orally on the content of the introduction to this banking transaction; handout VIII.

Step 4. Handouts IX and X show a reproduction of the standardized international form of a request for a documentary credit. Handouts XIa and XIb show an example of the method which the students have to follow when opening a documentary credit.

The import/export firm Morsel S.A. in Lausanne buys from a company in Morocco 60 hectoliters of olive oil. It was agreed to settle the account by opening a confirmed credit with a bank in Casablanca. By making use of the standardized form, (handouts IX and X) Morel S.A. gives his bank in Lausanne[1] the order to open an irrevocable confirmed credit with the bank in Casablanca[2] in favor of the supplier[3] for the amount of the merchandise[4], valid from ____[5]____ to ______, available against surrender of the following documents[6]:

a) commercial invoice[7] in duplicate;

b) weight[8] note;

c) certificate[9] of origin;

d) description[10] of quality;

e) insurance[11] certificate covering all the risks;

f) bill[12] of lading in duplicate;

g) the freight[13] agent's receipt;

h) a complete set of the bill[14] of lading to[16] be sent to the bank of Casablanca[15];

i) all documents evidencing the shipment CIF/FOB;

k) of 60 hectoliters of olive[17] oil;

l) at the price[18] of ...;

m) according to the invoice[19] of .....;

n) date[20] of shipment;

o) destination: Lausanne[21];

p) via: Marseilles[22];

q) partial[23] shipment: accepted;

r) forwarding[24] agent;

s) insurance[25] is effected by ...;

t) advise beneficiaries[26] by cable of the opening of this credit;

u) debit[27] our account upon receipt of the telegraphic advice regarding the availability of the amount which was transferred to the beneficiaries.

A written translation of the remainder of the stipulations made in this international form will conclude this assignment.

A similar blend of content is maintained in the following examples which deal with the insurance business. A descriptive text of this specific area of business, (handout XII) precedes the presentation of letters. Certain types of insurance correspondence are more or less standardized. However, most transactions are delicate and complex when dealing with accidents and public liability, and it is not rare that they end in litigations. Therefore it is necessary to present the situation with clarity. The letters presented in handouts XIIIa,b,c, had to be re-examined with regard to the aspects of form, plan, psychology of the concern and tone. They had to be drafted differently because of the wrong introduction, the unclear statement of the situation, the wrong deduction and conclusion.

This section can be concluded with a lexical review in form of questions; handout XIV. Furthermore it would be useful to draft a series of sentences containing each specific expression.

This format of conducting a French seminar geared to commerce and economy, is but a sampling of possibilities, how facts on numerous aspects of the French economy can be retrieved for course design.

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________ For information and subscription to its quarterly publication, write: French-American Chamber of Commerce, 1350 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10019.

_____ Prêt payant de films et bandes vidéos, Centre audiovisuel de l'entreprise, 21, rue Clément Marot, 75008 Paris

________ Toutes les grandes entreprises disposent de films qui se rapportent à leurs activités et qui sont prêtés gratuitement.

RETRAINING FRENCH LANGUAGE EDUCATORS
IN THE TEACHING OF COMMERCIAL FRENCH

(Handouts)

Rose Marie A. Marfurt
University of Missouri-Kansas City

Seventh Annual EMU Conference
on Languages and Communications
for World Business and the Professions
April 6-9, 1988   Ann Arbor, Michigan

MARFURT - I

This computerized quotation system is part of the new look of the Paris Bourse.

THE PARIS BOURSE

SO LONG, NAPOLEON; HELLO, COMPETITION!

BY CHRISTIAN MENANTEAU

Historians, sociologists and anthropologists closely following the changes and convulsions in the world of finance should take a good look at Paris, where something amazing is taking place: a quiet revolution. Better yet, a revolution by general consent! And they better look fast because the days of the Brongniart Palace as we have known it are numbered. In a few months, the palace, with its imposing Greek columns, statues and famous *corbeille*—the trading pit filled with white sand around which traders yell out their bids—will become a relic of the past. This very French tradition, which has always baffled foreigners, is about to disappear along with the sumptuous "post-quotation" meals at the Petit Coin de la Bourse, Chez Galopin and Le Vaudeville, those gourmet cafes that have been catering to gentlemen from the Bourse since 1876.

The story of the Paris stock exchange began nearly three centuries ago. Today, in the wake of traders' cries and cigar smoke, a new market is emerging—one that is expected to be the most active in continental Europe.

Several factors had gradually weakened the old system: the internationalization of the economy, the emergence of pragmatism as the standard for good economic management in French society and the intensification of the haggling between the buyers and traders on the Paris market. The "Big Bang" on the London Stock Exchange and the prospect of a more integrated European economy being set up by 1992 have accelerated the process. And since the French stock market has been performing remarkably over the past three years, the deregulation policy instituted by the former Finance Minister Pierre Bérégovoy and developed by his successor, Edouard Balladur, was well received by the Stock Brokers Association, which is well aware of its lack of financial power.

Concretely speaking, the reform of the stock exchange will put an end to the monopoly previously held by stockbrokers. Under the new system, brokers will be able to increase their equity capital by working with French or foreign banks, they will have access to the money market and their activities will be expanded to cover the entire range of financial services: inheritance management, research and development, investment, issuing and negotiation of all financial instruments.

In addition, a number of changes are being instituted to ensure that the new system respects free trade. Following approval by Parliament, a stock exchange council will be set up to license brokers and to define operating rules and supervise their implementation. A specialized financial institution will manage the joint services of the stock exchanges (the Paris exchange as well as other exchanges throughout the country) and the powers of the Stock Operations Commission (COB, Commission des Opérations Boursières) will be extended to control insider trading.

This collection of new techniques and regulations means the end of a monopoly rooted in the 18th century, and with it, the heritage of John Law, a brilliant but unscrupulous English financier who created the first stock exchange in France in 1716. In the ensuing whirlwind of speculative buying, thousands lost their savings, and Louis XVI had to create the first corps of stockbrokers to restore investor trust. Later, Napoleon—who definitely had a finger in every pie—established a status for the brokers that was to last for almost 180 years.

At the dawn of the 21st century, the entire technical structure of the Paris market is being redesigned. New quotation systems are being set up (continuous computer-assisted trading) together with two new systems of price display in real time: Chronoval, designed for the public, records the time and date of every transaction, the prices quoted and all trading activity; and Topval, for professionals, provides all the data on the state of the market, including the continuous market, through a revolutionary technology, digital radio broadcasting. All of these data will be made available by 1989 to every operator in the European Economic Community in order to guarantee the integrity of the market.

The market itself is growing rapidly. In 1986, the MATIF (futures exchange) was launched: 1.6 million contracts have already been negotiated. Its success has led to the creation of a market for 90-day Treasury bonds. This year, two negotiable markets have been opened—one in futures and one in stock options—and stock exchange index options should be covered by the end of 1987.

Strengthened by the successful privatizations and the increases in productive investments (up 5.6 percent in 1986) and spurred by the new offensive strategies of such big French corporations as Air Liquide, Michelin, Moët-Hennessy and Rhône-Poulenc, the Bourse holds all the cards it needs to become the primary stock market in Europe. Top executives at Merrill Lynch, Salomon Brothers and Shearson Lehman Brothers are well aware of what is in the offing. Together with British and Japanese investment banks, they have been laying siege to the French Stock Brokers Association in an effort to get the authorization they need to participate in the new French stock market game. ☐

Christian Menanteau is the Washington correspondent for Radio Television Luxembourg (RTL).

Une nouvelle France rurale

Chemin faisant, nous avons vu mourir les paysans, naître des agriculteurs modernes, disparaître une vieille société campagnarde et en renaître une nouvelle : la politique agricole a été radicalement changée, mais le poids des agriculteurs est demeuré. Pour terminer la question s'impose : la ruralité existe-t-elle encore en France ? A-t-elle encore un sens ? Les statistiques de l'INSEE conservent le critère de 2 000 habitants agglomérés pour différencier l'urbain du rural*. Ce seuil a été fixé au siècle dernier, lorsqu'un bourg de plus de 2 000 habitants était une petite ville qui se différenciait nettement des villages campagnards et agricoles des environs : pas d'agriculteurs en ville, si petite soit-elle, seulement des ouvriers, des employés, des commerçants, des artisans et des bourgeois. Au contraire, au village, des paysans et des artisans empaysannés et des gentilhommes-campagnards. Aujourd'hui, ce contraste est complètement anachronique, la mobilité et l'interaction incessante entre la ville et la campagne alentour font qu'une petite ville de 15 000 habitants est rurale, tandis qu'une ville de 30 000 habitants est déjà urbaine. Toutes les études sociologiques en cours sur les petites villes retrouvent ce seuil entre 15 000 et 30 000 habitants : au-dessous, la société, les rapports sociaux, les conflits, les clientèles s'agencent sur le modèle rural, au-dessus, on est en ville et l'agencement est tout autre.

Admettons un instant le seuil de 20 000 habitants et regardons la carte de France : elle se transforme radicalement. L'ensemble de cette population « rurale élargie » demeure à peu près stable depuis 1945 : en pourcentage de la population nationale, elle baisse légèrement de 50 à 44 %, mais en chiffre brut, elle augmente de 21 à 23 millions. Si l'on remonte plus loin dans le temps, on retrouve au XVIIIe siècle à peu près le même étiage qu'aujourd'hui. Étonnante stabilité sur la courte comme sur la longue période ! Malgré l'énorme développement récent des grandes métropoles urbaines, la France demeure beaucoup moins urbanisée que les autres pays industrialisés et sa structure rurale demeure beaucoup plus vivante. La politique actuelle d'aménagement du territoire cherche à promouvoir les « pays » comme échelons intermédiaires d'initiative et de gestion. Or, ces « pays » sont le plus souvent les anciens « baillages » de l'Ancien Régime devenus les arrondissements au début de la IIIe République avec sous-préfet et conseil d'arrondissement. Baillage, arrondissement, pays : il s'agit toujours des mêmes petites villes avec le même environnement rural.

Le dynamisme des campagnes et des petites villes

Tout le maillage de la carte de la France rurale se retrouve inchangé depuis plus de deux siècles : le XIXe a construit les grandes villes, peu nombreuses, et depuis un quart de siècle se sont édifiées les grandes métropoles, avec leurs immenses banlieues. Mais ces deux urbanisations successives se sont faites avec le surcroît de population au-dessus du tissu rural sans le toucher. Cette image est exactement l'opposée de celle qui avait été accréditée en 1945 par un livre au titre provoquant *Paris et le désert français*, dont la thèse a été démentie par les faits. Paris n'a pas « sucé toute la vitalité » de la France. Bien au contraire, après une période de transformations, la France des campagnes et des petites villes demeure vivante et même visiblement plus dynamique dans certains domaines, notamment culturel.

La renaissance des civilisations régionales et tous les mouvements régionalistes se nourrissent de cette vitalité locale et rurale conservée. Ce thème, qui dépasse le cadre de ce chapitre, est traité par ailleurs, il convient de souligner que toutes les tendances se conjuguent pour entretenir et renouveler la diversité des traditions et des contrastes régionaux dont on a dit trop vite qu'ils étaient condamnés par la société de masse et la société de consommation. Bien au contraire, toutes nos enquêtes montrent que loin d'homogénéiser les mœurs et les conduites, le développement de notre société donne aux traditions locales de nouvelles possibilités de se perpétuer et de se rajeunir. Ainsi, au bout du compte, la mort des paysans n'entraîne pas inéluctablement la fin des coutumes et des pratiques qu'ils avaient agencées dans une multitude de civilisations locales et régionales. Après une période de léthargie, puis un temps de remue-ménage, on voit se dégager les traits essentiels d'une nouvelle France rurale qui conserve beaucoup de ses structures anciennes, les rajeunit, les met au goût du jour et ainsi offre à ses habitants, ainsi qu'à ses visiteurs citadins ou étrangers, une société où il fait bon vivre.

UNE NOUVELLE FRANCE RURALE

Utilisez les mots du texte pour compléter le sens des phrases, et traduisez-les en anglais.

1. Les statistiques de l'INSEE conservent le critère de 2 000 habitants ________________ pour différencier l'urbain du rural.
2. Au contraire, au village, des paysans et des artisans ______________ et des gentilhommes - __________________.
3. Toutes les études sociologiques en cours sur les petites villes retrouvent ce ____________ entre 15 000 et 30 000 habitants.
4. En pourcentage de la population nationale, elle __________ légèrement de 50 à 44 %, mais en chiffre __________, elle augmente de 21 à 23 millions.
5. Malgré l'énorme développement récent des grandes métropoles __________, la France demeure beaucoup moins ___________ que les autres pays industrialisés et sa structure __________ demeure beaucoup plus vivante.
6. Ces pays sont le plus souvent les anciens ______________ de l'Ancien Régime..
7. Mais ces deux _______________ successives se sont faites avec le ____________ de population au-dessus du tissu rural sans le toucher.
8. La renaissance des civilisation ______________ et tous les mouvements _______________ se nourrissent de cette vitalité locale et rurale conservée.
9. Après une période de ____________, puis un temps de ________________, on voit se dégager les traits ______________ d'une nouvelle France rurale.

Source: Henri Mendras. "Une nouvelle France rurale", la Documentation Française, Paris, 1981

Text of taped recording

Les spécialisations technologiques et sectorielles de la France

Est-il possible de dégager des vocations industrielles privilégiées pour la France ?

La tâche est difficile, car la réalité industrielle est infiniment complexe, et malaisée à globaliser. Une première approche consiste à examiner la structure dynamique de la balance commerciale française, et ses positions exportatrices et importatrices par secteurs industriels. La considération des valeurs absolues est toutefois insuffisante : il faut encore les comparer aux positions des autres pays industriels pour déceler les retards et les avances. On note ainsi que :

— pour les *matières premières minérales* et les sources d'énergie, la position française est très défavorable, reflétant un manque séculaire de ressources naturelles. La France importe les trois quarts de l'énergie qu'elle consomme, dont à peu près la totalité de son pétrole, la moitié de son charbon ; ses ressources nationales de gaz naturel sont en voie d'épuisement. L'électricité hydraulique et l'uranium sont les deux seuls secteurs où elle ne soit pas trop mal placée.

Pour les minerais, la dépendance extérieure est de l'ordre des deux tiers pour le cuivre, le plomb, le zinc, l'étain, etc. ; l'autonomie n'est atteinte que pour le fer, la bauxite, la potasse. Malgré ces faiblesses l'industrie française a pu développer des positions technologiques avancées dans certains secteurs liés à la production d'énergie ou à la première transformation des minerais (gros matériel électrique, exploitation et valorisation du pétrole, de l'uranium, aluminium, ciment, etc.).

— pour les *produits alimentaires*, la France est en revanche plutôt bien dotée par les avantages naturels. La situation de compétitivité internationale varie cependant beaucoup selon les secteurs. La France est fortement exportatrice de céréales, de sucre, etc. grâce aux exploitations extensives des plaines du Bassin Parisien, mais il s'agit en général de produits en vrac, peu transformés. En revanche, pour l'élevage, les produits méditerranéens, les légumes, la viande la conserverie, et les produits de la filière lait, les résultats médiocres reflètent une insuffisante compétitivité internationale.

De manière générale, l'insuffisance se révèle au niveau de l'industrie agro-alimentaire, qui reste encore trop proche de l'exploitation agricole, de la coopérative, de l'artisanat et n'a pas encore atteint la dimension de la grande industrie, fondée sur la standardisation, la production de masse, la distribution intégrée, le marketing, etc. Là encore, toutefois, l'industrialisation s'améliore : on note en particulier de belles performances de compétitivité internationale et d'exportations dans le secteur des boissons (alcools, vins, non-alcoolisés, eaux minérales), grâce à des entreprises très spécialisées.

— pour les *biens intermédiaires*, on observe une légère détérioration de la balance commerciale, au voisinage toutefois de l'équilibre, dissimulant des situations contrastées. La position dans la métallurgie est relativement médiocre (dans la sidérurgie, fonderie, première transformation des métaux), avec quelques points forts comme les tuyaux de fonte, les aciers spéciaux, les métaux non ferreux (aluminium, transformation du cuivre). La chimie donne de bons résultats dans le caoutchouc, le verre, le ciment, la pharmacie, la parfumerie, encore insuffisants dans la chimie organique, les engrais, la para-chimie et la chimie fine (là encore en comparaison des autres grands pays industriels). La « filière bois », bois d'œuvre, papier et carton accuse un déficit extérieur considérable, alors même que la France dispose des plus belles zones forestières d'Europe continentale ; il faut sans doute incriminer là les structures d'exploitation forestière, encore trop proches de l'économie agricole et pas assez industrielles

— pour les *biens de consommation courante*, on observe une détérioration constante depuis dix ans du solde commercial et de l'emploi. Au début de la décennie soixante-dix, la France était sans doute excessivement spécialisée, pour un pays industriel avancé, dans des secteurs comme le textile et l'habillement, le cuir et les chaussures, l'ameublement, etc. Les positions se sont détériorées, face à la concurrence des pays en voie d'industrialisation à main-d'œuvre peu qualifiée mais à bon marché de l'Asie du Sud-Est et de l'Europe du Sud (Italie surtout), mais aussi face à des pays plus industrialisés (USA). Néanmoins, l'industrie française a pu maintenir et développer sa vocation dans certains créneaux spécialisés, ou de luxe, où elle a pu faire preuve d'innovation (haute couture et prêt à porter, porcelaine, bijouterie, etc.), qui sont les héritiers des célèbres « articles de Paris », symboles de la présence française sur les marchés internationaux avant-guerre.

— pour les *biens de consommation durable*, on observe de très fortes disparités de performances. Il s'agit en général de productions de grande série. La France excelle dans le secteur automobile dont le taux de couverture extérieur excède 250 %, et le surplus commercial couvre le tiers de la facture pétrolière. Cette « vocation automobile » de la France a de longues traditions historiques : elle s'appuie sur une technologie avancée et sur deux entreprises qui bien qu'ayant des stratégies industrielles et des statuts juridiques très différents (Renault nationalisée mais gérée de manière autonome et poursuivant une stratégie de croissance interne ; Peugeot, à statut privé, et même à contrôle familial, poursuivant une stratégie de croissance externe par absorptions), ont vocation à demeurer dans le peloton de tête mondial dans la grande compétition en cours. Les succès de l'automobile ont entraîné dans leur sillage ceux des branches sous-traitantes. En revanche, la situation est médiocre dans l'électroménager, réfrigérateurs, machines à laver, biens d'équipement domestique, dont le déficit extérieur, déjà considérable (taux de couverture 50 %) continue de s'accroître (malgré de bonnes performances à signaler dans les articles de sport et le petit électroménager).

— les *biens d'équipement industriel* mécaniques et électriques sont le talon d'Achille traditionnel de l'industrie française qui importe depuis deux siècles beaucoup de ses machines d'Angleterre d'abord, puis d'Allemagne et des États-Unis.

Mais la position extérieure, qui était déficitaire il y a encore dix ans, est maintenant devenue excédentaire (taux de couverture des importations par les exportations de 130 %). Ces succès ont été obtenus surtout par une très forte croissance des exportations vers les pays de l'OPEP et de l'Europe de l'Est, devenus très avides d'équipements industriels ; mais la position reste déficitaire sur les grands pays industriels, États-Unis, République fédérale d'Allemagne et Japon. A un niveau d'analyse plus fin, on observe une très bonne position sur le matériel d'équipement électrique, l'électronique professionnelle, la construction aéronautique et l'armement ; mais des positions encore trop faibles, par rapport à d'autres grands pays industriels, dans la machine-outil, les machines spéciales et autres équipements mécaniques, les véhicules industriels, les composants électroniques et les ordinateurs, les machines agricoles et pour les industries agro-alimentaires, la mécanique de précision et l'instrumentation, etc. Mais, de manière générale, le rattrapage sur les nations plus avancées semble très nettement amorcé.

LES SPECIALISATIONS TECHNOLOGIQUES ET SECTORIELLES DE LA FRANCE

Répondez aux questions basées sur les mots ou les groupes de mots soulignés dans l'article écrit par Christian Stoffaës:

1. Pourquoi la position française est-elle défavorable en ce qui concerne les matières premières et les sources d'énergie?
2. Quelle est la position de la France en ce qui concerne l'électricité et l'uranium?
3. Dans quels secteurs a-t-elle atteint son autonomie?
4. Quels produits alimentaires est-ce que la France exporte et est-ce qu'ils s'exportent en vrac ou transformés?
5. A quel niveau se révèle-t-il encore toujours une insufficance?
6. Dans quel secteur observe-t-on une légère détérioration de la balance commerciale?
7. Pourquoi observe-t-on une détérioration constante du solde commercial pour les biens de consommation depuis dix ans?
8. Dans quel secteur y a-t-il une très grande disparité de performances?
9. Donnez des détails sur le secteur automobile.

Source: Stoffaës, Christian. "Les spécialisations technologiques
et sectorielles de la France", *La Documentation Française*,
Paris, 1981

LE CREDIT DOCUMENTAIRE

Le crédit documentaire, appelé aussi accréditif documentaire, est celui qu'une banque consent en faveur d'un importateur (acheteur) sur la base de documents représentant la marchandise et prouvant qu'elle a été chargée. Par ce crédit, l'importateur met des fonds à la disposition de l'exportateur (vendeur) , pendant un temps fixé d'avance (validité). L'opération a lieu sur l'ordre de l'acheteur, qui charge son banquier de transmettre ses instructions à une banque située généralement dans la localité du vendeur.

Ce mode de payement, très pratique, est utilisé lorsque le contrat de vente oblige l'acheteur à payer les marchandises au départ. Il présente un avantage pour les deux contractants: le vendeur touche son dû déjà au moment de l'expédition, mais seulement après avoir remis au banquier payeur les documents requis; quant à l'acheteur, il est assuré que le payement n'aura pas lieu avant que les marchandises soient chargées. Ainsi les deux parties obtiennent le maximum de garanties.

Le crédit documentaire est connu depuis longtemps. Il n'a pas été imaginé à la suite des difficultés économiques nées de la guerre ou des récentes révolutions. Autrefois, on en usait surtout pour payer les marchandises importées d'outre-mer. Ces dernières années, il s'est imposé de plus en plus à cause des circonstances très spéciales qui affectent les transactions internationales. L'insécurité générale, consécutive aux bouleversements politiques et sociaux, ainsi que l'immixion croissante de l'Etat dans l'économie privée, entravent le libre-échange des marchandises; les opérations de payment sont, de ce fait aussi, plus compliquées. Les règlements de compte ne dépendant plus uniquement de l'honnêteté et de la solvabilité de l'importateur, les livraisons à crédit ou payables d'avance sont devenues quasi impossibles. Or le crédit documentaire permet de tourner certains obstacles auxquels se heurtent exportateurs et importateurs. Les avantages qu'il offre sont tels qu'on l'a introduit dans les transactions entre pays d'Europe.

(Texte de l'enregistrement)

On distingue deux sortes de crédit documentaire:

a) le crédit documentaire qui est ouvert à titre irrévocable et confirmé, ou non confirmé.

b) le crédit documentaire révocable.

Tout crédit qui n'est pas clairement stipulé irrévocable doit être considéré comme révocable.

Aux termes du crédit irrévocable et confirmé, le banquier payeur s'engage personnellement à verser au vendeur la contre-valeur de sa livraison, sur présentation des documents exigés. Ce montant, ainsi que la durée de l'engagement, sont fixés. Comme son appellation l'indique, le crédit documentaire irrévocable ne peur être annulé, à moins que le vendeur n'y consente. Ce dernier a donc la certitude d'être payé.

En ouvrant un crédit documentaire révocable, le banquier payeur informe le vendeur que, selon l'ordre de son client (l'acheteur), il est autorisé à lui payer, jusqu'à concurrence d'une certaine somme, les documents se rapportant à une marchandise déterminée. En vertu même de son appellation, le crédit révocable peur être annulé en tout temps au gré du donneur d'ordre (l'acheteur). Un tel crédit est donc conditionnel, le banquier ne s'engageant pas personnellement.

Qu'il s'agisse d'un crédit révocable ou d'un crédit irrévocable et non confirmé, la banque n'est pas tenue de les payer si son correspondant étranger n'a pas constitué chez elle la provision nécessaire. Les conditions d'ouverture de ces crédits sont donc moins onéreuses que s'il s'agit d'un crédit confirmé. Il y a là une légère économie qui, dans certains cas, justifie l'emploi de crédits documentaires non confirmés. En général, le donneur d'ordre en use quand il veut demeurer libre d'annuler l'opération suivant les circonstances. Il sera tenté d'y recourir également lorsqu'il achète des marchandises prêtes à l'expédition. En revanche, l'exportateur exigera le crédit irrévocable et confirmé si l'exécution de l'ordre reçu demande un certain temps.

Un crédit non confirmé ne peut plus être révoqué dès l'instant où les documents sont en main du banquier payeur. En principe, le crédit documentaire doit être utilisé en une seule fois. La banque n'acceptera donc l'emploi du crédit par fractions que si l'ouverture de ce crédit mentionne: "Expéditions partielles autorisées".

Les documents remis au banquier payeur sont:

a) Le connaissement, pièce fondamentale du crédit documentaire, par laquelle l'armateur ou le capitaine de vaisseau certifie avoir reçu la marchandise à son bord et s'engage à la délivrer dès l'arrivée. Ce n'est donc pas un simple récépissé mais un papier valeur. Le connaissement est un titre maritime, uniquement. En principe, le banquier exigera le jeu complet des connaissements. Le nombre d'exemplaires est mentionné sur le document.

b) La police d'assurance qui permet au propriétaire du connaissement d'exiger de la compagnie d'assurances le paiement de l'indemnité en cas de sinistre, d'avarie, etc. Les différents risques sont prévus lors de l'ouverture du crédit.

c) La facture dont le rôle est de faciliter les opérations de contrôle et les formalités douanières. Cette pièce contient un état exact des marchandises faisant l'objet du crédit; elle mentionne le prix unitaire et le montant total à payer; elle doit être valablement acquittée.

Les documents accessoires qui peuvent être encore exigés varient suivant la nature des marchandises, le pays de provenance, et les exigences du pays destinataire. Citons entre autres: le certificat d'origine, la facture consulaire, le permis d'exportation, le certificat sanitaire, le bulletin de poids, etc.

Les modes d'expéditions sont "vente fob" ou "vente caf".

LE CREDIT DOCUMENTAIRE

Utilisez le vocabulaire du texte pour compléter le sens des phrases et traduisez-les en anglais

1. Le crédit documentaire s'appelle aussi ______________ .

2. L'importateur met des fonds à la disposition ______________ .

3. Le vendeur touche son dû déjà ________________.

4. Quant à l'acheteur, il est assuré que le payement n'aura pas lieu avant ______________.

5. Les règlements de comptes ne dépendent pas uniquement de l'honnêteté et de ________________ de l'importateur.

6. Le crédit documentaire irrévocable ne peut être annulé, à moins que ________________ .

Traduction en anglais:

LE CREDIT DOCUMENTAIRE

Répondez oralement aux questions qui seront basées sur le texte enregistré:

1. Pourquoi le crédit documentaire irrévocable ne peut-il pas être annulé?
2. Quand est-ce que la banque n'est pas obligée à payer?
3. Quand est-ce qu'un crédit non confirmé ne peut plus être révoqué?
4. Quels sont les documents remis au banquier payeur et quel est le rôle de chaque document?
5. Est-ce que le crédit documentaire doit être utilisé en une seule fois?
6. Qu'est-ce qui constitue un jeu complet des connaissements?
7. Quels sont les documents accessoires qui peuvent être exigés?
8. Que veut dire l'expression "vente fob" ou "vente caf"?

MARFURT – IX

CREDIT DOCUMENTAIRE No. ____________ , le

À la Caisse d'Epargne et de Crédit,
1000 LAUSANNE (1)

Messieurs,

Nous vous prions d'ouvrir pour notre compte,

lettre ordinaire,
par courrier aérien,
télégramme ordinaire / télégramme ELT,

auprès de (2)

en faveur de (3)

un crédit documentaire révocable (sans engagement),
irrévocable confirmé,
irrévocable non confirmé,

pour la somme de (4)
(en lettres) :

valable à (5) jusqu'au (5)

comprenant le paiement de la marchandise seulement
la marchandise et

utilisable à vue contre remise des documents suivants : (6)

facture ou copie de facture commerciale acquittée (2 ex.) 7
non acquittée (ex.)

note de poids (8)
certificat d'origine (9)
certificat de qualité (10)
certificat d'assurance couvrant les risques de (11)

duplicata d'une lettre de voiture officiellement estampillé, (12)
récépissé du transitaire (13)
jeu complet de connaissements (14)
à adresser à
(15)

le tout se rapportant à l'expédition C I F / F O B (16)
franco

de (désignation exacte de la marchandise) : (17)

MARFURT-X

au prix de (18)
selon facture du : (19)
Epoque d'expédition ou d'embarquement : (20)
Destination: (21))
Via (22)
Expéditions partielles admises
non admises (23)
Transitaire : (24)
L'assurance est couverte par (25)
Veuillez faire aviser le bénéficiaire de l'ouverture de ce crédit
par lettre / par télégramme (26)
et nous débiter en compte

à réception des documents
à réception de l'avis télégraphique d'utilisation

du montant versé au bénéficiaire. (27)

Vos frais et commissions, les frais et commissions de vos correspondants, les intérêts de retard et les différences de change éventuelles sont à notre charge, de même que tous les risques et conséquences pouvant résulter de la présente opération.

Nous vous dégageons, ainsi que vos correspondants, de toute responsabilité, tant en ce qui concerne la qualité et la quantité de la marchandise que pour l'authenticité et la teneur des documents, les retards qu'ils pourraient subir dans leur transmission, leur perte ou mutilation, les erreurs d'interprétation ou autres auxquelles pourraient être sujets les câbles et télégrammes, la traduction et l'interprétation des termes techniques que vous aurez la faculté de transmettre tels quels.

Nous vous dégageons également de toute responsabilité en cas d'interruption du trafic postal qui empêcherait les documents d'arriver à Lausanne. Nous ne pourrons donc faire aucune réserve concernant les paiements effectués pour le cas où les documents ne vous parviendraient pas.

Nous nous engageons, si l'assurance est soignée par nous, à vous remettre, sur votre demande, un avenant, aussitôt que nous connaîtrons de manière certaine l'embarquement ou l'expédition.

De convention expresse, les documents sont affectés par nous à titre de gage et de nantissement à la bonne fin des avances qui résulteront de votre paiement, ainsi qu'au remboursement de toutes sommes dont nous serions débiteurs envers vous pour quelque cause que ce soit.

Les termes et conditions du crédit seront interprétés conformément aux Règles et Usances uniformes relatives aux crédits documentaires (version révisée 1962). Brochure No. 222 de la Chambre de Commerce Internationale. Il sera soumis aux règles en vigueur sur la place où il est ouvert.

Recevez, Messieurs, nos salutations distinguées.
(signature)

LE CREDIT DOCUMENTAIRE

Processus à suivre lors d'un paiement par ouverture d'un crédit documentaire. Utilisez la formule internationale, pages IX et X.

Morel S.A., importation, exportation, Lausanne, achète à une entreprise du Maroc 60 hectolitres d'huile d'olive. On est convenu que, le règlement de compte se fera par l'ouverture d'un crédit documentaire auprès d'une banque de Casablanca.

1. Morel donne à sa banque (Lausanne) l'ordre d'ouvrir en faveur du vendeur, auprès d'une banque de Casablanca, un crédit documentaire dont le montant représente le coût de la marchandise. A cet effet, il fournit au banquier les indications que voici:

a) la banque qui sera invitée à ouvrir le crédit,
b) le genre du crédit documentaire (révocable ou irrévocable),
c) son montant et sa durée de validité,
d) le nom et l'adresse du vendeur,
e) les documents qui seront exigés,
f) la désignation de la marchandise,
g) le délai d'embarquement,
h) diverses modalités spéciales;

2. La banque lausannoise prie celle de Casablanca d'ouvrir le crédit en faveur du vendeur; dans l'accusé de réception qu'elle adresse à Morel, elle reproduit textuellement les données de l'ordre et précise certaines modalités.

3. La banque de Casablanca examine la demande d'ouverture de crédit et s'assure qu'aucune précision essentielle n'y manque; S'il y a lieu, elle prend des informations complémentaires auprès de la banque lausannoise; lorsqu'elle possède toutes les données voulues, elle ouvre le crédit et en informe le bénéficiaire (vendeur) ainsi que la banque lausannoise;

4. dès qu'il reçoit cet avis, le vendeur procède aux opérations de chargement, puis remet à la banque de Casablanca les documents exigés par elle;

5. la banque les examine très attentivement; s'ils sont en tout point conformes aux exigences, elle paye au vendeur la contre-valeur de sa livraison;

6. elle envoie immédiatement les documents à la banque lausannoise;

7. à son tour, la banque lausannoise les fait parvenir à Morel; elle porte à sont débit le montant du crédit, celui des intérêts, des commissions d'usage et des frais;

8. elle rembourse à la banque de Casablanca le montant versé, augmenté de celui des frais et commissions.

LES ASSURANCES

Définition

L'assurance est un contrat par lequel une personne, contre paiement d'une prime, reçoit la promesse d'un assureur, d'obtenir, pour elle ou pour un tiers, une prestation en cas de réalisation d'un événement incertain, déterminé par avance.

La réalisation de l'événement constitue un sinistre. Le montant de la prestation peut être fixé ou non.

S'il est déterminé pour les assurances-vie, en revanche, seule la limite supérieure des indemnisations susceptibles d'être versées est connue pour une assurance en responsabilité civile.

Les genres d'assurance

Actuellement les branches principales sont les suivantes:

a) Assurance de personnes:
- vie
- accident
- maladie

b) Assurances de dommages:
- vol
- RC (responsabilité civile)
- incendie
- bris de glace
- dégât d'eau
- transport (de matériaux)

ANALYSE ET RECOMPOSITION DE LETTRES ORIGINALES

Genève, le 3 juillet 19..

Monsieur Paul Boissonet
Agriculteur
Jussy

Monsieur,

Nous accusons réception de votre réclamation d'accident. Nous ne savons pas si M. Blanchard vous a adressé lui-même une réclamation ou si vous nous envoyez cet avis de sinistre de votre propre chef, mais il apparaît d'emblée que nous ne pouvons pas prendre ce cas en considération.

Nous ne voyons en effet pas pourquoi votre responsabilité serait engagée. Il est fort possible que M. Blanchard ait été piqué par une de vos abeilles, mais cela ne peut en aucun cas vous valoir une réclamation de sa part. Nous pensons que vous comprendrez facilement notre refus d'intervenir dans un cas où, si l'assurance n'avait pas existé, vous ne seriez certainement pas prêt à dédommager M. Blanchard des suites de cette piqûre.

Veuillez, Monsieur, agréer nos salutation distinguées.

La Genève
société d'assurances contre
les accidents et la responsabilité civile
Pour l'agence générale:
F. H.

Critique:

Style touffu. Le plan n'est pas rationnel. Le ton n'est pas juste. "Nous ne voyons en effet pas pourquoi.. - ... vous ne seriez certainement pas prêt à dédommager...Cette seconde phrase du deuxième paragraphe met en doute l'honnêteté de M. Boissonnet.

Texte corrigé

Monsieur,

Nous sommes en possession de votre déclaration d'accident du.. dont le contenu nous a quelque peu surpris.

Il est fort possible, comme vous le pensez, que M. Blanchard ait été piqué par une de vos abeilles. Toutefois, un tel fait, supposé qu'il fût établi, ne constituerait pas une faute de votre part et n'ouvrirait aucun droit à des dommages-intérêts.

En outre, vous ne dites pas si l'intéressé a lui-même élevé une réclamation ou si c'est de votre propre chef que vous nous avez fait parvenir cet avis de sinistre. Quoi qu'il en soit, votre responsabilité n'est nullement engagée. Cela étant, nous n'avons pas à intervenir.

Vous admettrez sans doute avec nous que nul ne songerait à indemniser une personne piquée par une abeille si l'assurance n'existait pas. Vous n'avez donc, dans le cas particulier, aucun scrupule à vous faire à l'égard de M. Blanchard.

Veuillez, Monsieur, agréer nos salutations distinguées.

La Genève

Neuchâtel, le 8 novembre 19..

Monsieur Olivier Piaget
Villa Sully
Colombier

Monsieur,

Nous accusons réception de votre lettre du 3 courant et regrettons de vous informer que nous ne partageons pas votre point de vue. En effet, selon la loi, le propriétaire n'est responsable du dommage causé à un tiers que si l'accident est dû à un vice de construction ou à un défaut d'entretien.

Or, dans le cas particulier, le fait invoqué ci-dessus qui pourrait constituer un cas de responsabilité civile, n'existe pas. En vertu de l'article 41 du Code des obligations, la responsabilité de notre assuré n'est pas engagée, étant donné que l'événement accidentel n'est pas dû à une faute commise par lui. Madame Piaget n'étant pas assurée contre les accidents, notre sociétaire M. Guye ne peut donc répondre des conséquences d'accident pour lequel sa responsabilité civile n'est pas en cause.

Avec nos regrets de ne pouvoir vous donner une réponse plus favorable, nous vous présentons, Monsieur, nos salutations distinguées.

La Neuchâtel
assurance mutuelle contre
les accidents et la responsabilité civile
Pour l'agence générale:
Pierre Grenet

Critique:

Ce texte manque de cohérence; l'ordonnance des faits et des considérants n'est pas rationnelle. L'auteur exprime son désaccord dans la première phrase. Ce faisant, il indispose d'emblée le correspondant qui suivra avec un intérêt amoindri l'argumentation. C'est une erreur psychologique que de formuler un refus au début de la lettre.

Texte corrigé

2000 Neuchâtel, le 8 novembre 19..

Monsieur Olivier Piaget
Villa Sully
2013 Colombier

Monsieur,

Introduction

Par votre lettre du 3 novembre 19.., vous nous faites savoir que vous estimez être en droit de réclamer des dommages-intérêts à votre propriétaire, M. Guye, dont nous sommes l'assureur en responsabilité civile.

Situation de fait (la loi, les faits)

Permettez-nous, à ce propos, de vous faire remarquer que le propriétaire d'un immeuble n'est responsable du préjudice causé à des tiers que si l'accident est dû à un vice de construction ou à un défaut d'entretien d'une installation. D'une façon générale, le Code des obligations prévoit, à l'article 41, que le préjudice subi du fait d'une tierce personne ouvre un droit à des dommages-intérêts si celle-ci est coupable d'une négligence ou d'une imprudence.

Il ressort de l'enquête à laquelle nous avons procédé que l'événement accidentel dont fut victime Madame Piaget ne peut être attribué à une faute de notre assuré. L'installation dont il s'agit est en parfait état et M. Guye n'a commis aucune imprudence. Il s'ensuit que sa responsabilité civile n'est nullement engagée. Dans ces conditions, Madame Piaget n'aurait droit à une indemnité que si elle était assurée contre les accidents, ce qui n'est pas le cas.

Déduction

Vu ce qui précède, nous regrettons de ne pouvoir accueillir favorablement votre requête en intervenant das la réparation de ce dommage.

Conclusion

Comme vous l'admettrez sans doute après ces explications, notre refus se justifie pleinement. En conséquence, nous considérons l'affaire comme liquidée.

Veuillez trouver ici, Monsieur, l'assurance de nos sentiments distingués.

LA NEUCHATEL

LES ASSURANCES

Qu'est-ce que vous entendez par:

1. Une assurance collective
2. Un avenant
3. Couverture
4. Délai d'attente
5. Délai de carence
6. Prestation
7. Prime
8. Une franchise
9. le sinistre
10. Valeur de rachat

Faites une phrase avec chacun des mots:

INTENSIVE FRENCH INSTRUCTION: A CASE HISTORY IN FRANCE

Régine Lambrech
Ecole Centrale de Lyon

In Common Market countries the importance of an international education has been recognized for years. The goal of establishing a "Europe without borders" in 1992 has greatly fostered educational exchanges. The Ecole Centrale de Lyon (hereafter referred to as Centrale) is a school of engineering which the French call a "grande école". This means that admission is based on a highly selective competitive entrance exam that follows two years of special preparation in math and physics. Enrollment is made up of approximately 750 undergraduate students and 100 graduate students of whom 70 are foreign. At Centrale we have capitalized on our international contacts and have established study exchanges with five countries: the U.S.; Great Britain; Germany; Ireland and Indonesia. Through these exchanges we have an additional 25 foreign students enrolled in both undergraduate and graduate programs.

At the present time we have seven joint study programs and another two exchange agreements have just been signed. The chart below details the schools these exchanges are with and the number of students involved in them. It also provides a quick overview of the parameters of these exchanges. The reader will note that the Galway and Indonesian exchanges do not work in both directions. At the present time Galway's strength lies in oceanography, a subject that our students have no background in. Centrale's students are several years ahead of the Jakarta students in math and the parameters of this exchange are still being modified.

UNIVERSITY	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	LEVEL OF PROGRAM	ADMINISTRATIVE BACKGROUND
CORNELL (USA) 1984	CORNELL - 3 ECL - 4	D.E.A. M. ENG.	Tuition is waived at both schools. Cornell tries to provide research assistantships for all our students and the ECL provides free room in ECL dorms, partly subsidized meal tickets and a monthly stipend of $200 to the Cornell Students
SALFORD (G.B.) 1975	SALFORD - 2 ECL - 2	UNDERGRADUATE MASTER OF SCIENCE	Fees are waived at both Schools. A JSP grant covers other student expenses, e.g. food and lodging. Students are guaranteed lodging in ECL dorms. Faculty exchanges are being envisioned for 1988-1989.
DARMSTADT (W. GERM.) 1968	DARMSTADT - 15 ECL - 10	GRADUATE (D.E.A.) - 3 UNDERGRADUATE - 12	All fees are waived. JSP grants cover other expenses. Students are guaranteed rooms in ECL dorms. This programm involves teacher and researcher exchange, common colloquia and common research projects.
BERLIN (W. GERM.) 1986	BERLIN - 2 ECL - 2	GRADUATE (D.E.A.) - 2 UNDERGRADUATE	Fees are waived at both schools. DAAD funding provides enough coverage to pay for food, lodging in ECL dormitories and some travel expenses.
GALWAY (IRE) 1985	GALWAY - 1 ECL - 0	GRADUATE (D.E.A.)	Fees are waived by the ECL and a JSP grant allows students to cover costs of food and lodging in ECL dormitories.
DJAKARTA (IND) 1986	DJAKARTA - 25 ECL - 0	GRADUATE	The ECL has agreed to take members of the staff of the University of Indonesia and put them in graduate programs (D.E.A., D.E.S.S. or MASTERE) according to their abilities. ECL professors spend one or two weeks lecturing at the U. of I. and help to organize educatio and research at a post graduate level in Djakarta. U. of I. pays for its students' expenses.
COLUMBIA (USA) 1988		M. ENG. OR M.S. D.E.A./RESEARCH	
IMPERIAL COLLEGE (G.B.)		MASTER OF SCIENCE D.E.A.	

The diversity of mathematical background of all the participants has made it difficult to incorporate all the students into the same program. The Salford students take first and second year courses at Centrale and our final year students prepare a Master of Science degree at Salford and receive Centrale's Diplome d'Ingénieur upon successful completion of the Salford M. Sc. degree. The Cornell students prepare a Diplome d'Etudes Approfondies (equivalent to a M.Eng. degree in the States) at Centrale and our final year students prepare either a M. Eng. or a M.S. at Cornell and also upon successful completion of the Cornell program are awarded the Diplome d'Ingénieur from Centrale. The German students take mostly final year courses at Centrale (they must have a Voordiplom to participate in the exchange) and our final year students take advanced courses in Germany which are applied to their Engineering diploma from Centrale.

The influx of foreign students presented many administrative problems but the largest problem by far was the difficulty these students had in integrating our engineering courses which are, of course, taught in French. A variety of linguistic backgrounds and preparation in French that went from no exposure to the language at all to acceptable preparation led to a minimum number of participants in the exchanges. Those who ventured to come often had severe adaptation problems during the first three months of their studies. They were given no special orientation program or advising and were, quite frankly, thrown into the system and expected to adapt.

Students frequently misunderstood instructions, could not correctly formulate questions and found that the French students did not want them on research teams because too much time was lost on explanations.

Furthermore, it was found that foreign students complained of having to do their own lab reports plus those of the exchange students.

Professors complained that the exchange students were not up to par but when pressed for further details, they readily admitted that the major obstacle was the language. It seems that professors could not understand what the students were trying to say on their exams.

In 1985 I was able to persuade the administration of Centrale to allow the creation of an intensive French program that would be held before the school year would begin. This would enable foreign exchange students to participate in a total immersion program in French in order to facilitate their adaptation to engineering courses taught exclusively in French. Moreover, having these students on campus before the arrival of the French students would allow us to give them an orientation session tailored to their special needs.

Centrale's professors were asked to provide information and sample articles on engineering topics to be covered in this course so that the students could gain facility in working with them. Contacts with the students in French gave me an idea of their grammatical deficiencies and their timidness in expressing their wants and needs to teachers.

Armed with this knowledge, I set about creating an intensive internship in French. I chose a three week internship because it was the longest our school calendar could accommodate while still providing a maximum exposure to French without burnout. Experience has proven a three week session to be the most workable solution. Since the school's cafeteria operates on a year round basis to accommodate professors, administrators and researchers, there was no problem in arranging for an additional 25 meals. School administrators agreed to open one floor of one of the school's dormitories for three weeks before the normal school year begins. Classes take place in the language laboratory and classrooms all situated in the school's library which is also open year-round. This means an economy in cleaning personnel since someone is already assigned to the library and regular classroom buildings and dormitories are not open until the last week of September.

The most difficult task was finding funding for this internship. Our Joint Study Program contracts with the E.E.C. did not provide for language reinforcement classes. It seemed that the financial burden of this internship would fall on Centrale. There were several administrative problems encountered in seeking funding from the school's general operating budget. French, not a language taught in the curriculum of the language department, could not benefit from budget allocations made to this department. Since the rest of the school's courses are engineering oriented, there was no possibility there to cover French instruction. The only area which gave us any flexibility was the International Relations budget. The administration agreed to use part of this budget to cover the salary for two teachers each handling 45 hours of classroom instruction.

An appeal was made to the Ministère des Relations Extérieures to help us set this internship up financially. It was pointed out that Centrale's student exchanges enhanced France's position with other nations and that linguistic deficiencies are a barrier to the further development of these exchanges. The Ministry graciously accorded us a 10,000 F grant for language instruction.

In 1986 the internship was inaugurated on a shoe-string budget. The Ministry's grant partially funded teacher salaries. Centrale covered the rest of the teacher salaries and loaned support materials which were therefore limited in scope (the language lab had no language tapes in French and the library had no French grammar texts).

In 1987 the Ministry renewed its grant but warned that this would be the final year of its support. Private businesses were contacted and they provided free blank cassettes, video recordings and even reams of paper to run off work sheets. Centrale continued to fill in the funding gaps.

This year the Joint Study Program of the E.E.C. has been converted into the Erasmus Program. For the first time in the history of E.E.C. sponsored exchange programs allowance is made for language reinforcement instruction in host institutions. Our contracts with the Universities of Berlin, Darmstadt and Salford will now almost entirely cover the costs of the participation of their students in the language internship.

The internship is organized around 90 hours of language instruction representing 30 hours per 5 day week. The six hours of instruction each day are divided into two 3 hour periods with an hour's break for lunch. I use this hour to have the students eat, meet and discuss with members of the faculty who will be their teachers or their research advisors. In that way by the time classes start, students already know a good number of faculty members and administrative support staff.

One of the major difficulties encountered in the pedagogical set up of this internship is the fact that the students have several different levels of French. On the whole I have found that the German students have the best background in French and are highly motivated to better their fluency because they can obtain one or two month internships in French industry at the end of their school year in France. They have fewer adaptation problems to classes entirely in French. The British, Irish and American students have had less exposure to French since it is not an integral part of their engineering course of study. The Indonesians, together with occasional Chinese or Indian researchers who sit in on the classes, have even greater obstacles to overcome. First of all they are not from Western cultures and secondly, they have had little or no formal French language instruction. I have had to arrange for individual tutoring for these participants. Centrale's students who are candidates for the following year's study abroad offer to volunteer tutoring hours in French grammar and conversation.

In an effort to homogenize the entrance level of French we ask all students requesting to participate in the exchange to take a French conversation course at their university during the semester before they come to Centrale. This year for the first time the disparity in levels was not so great and I was able to bring all 25 participants to a common, higher level of fluency by the end on the third week of instruction.

Another problem encountered is the school's policy that students not be required to buy textbooks. In spite of my pleas that the internship be exempted from this rule, no special status was accorded. Therefore all support material must be made up by the teacher and either written on the board or xeroxed (hence the importance of the donations of reams of paper from private industry). Most of the students bring French grammar books written in German or in English with them when they come to Centrale. Although all the students speak English fluently, they are forbidden to use English as a common language in order to teach them to learn to think in French.

The following chart is a sample 30 hour week. The reader will note that each day is divided into two parts - 3 hours of grammar reinforcement and 3 hours of conversation and oral comprehension.

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9 am 10 am	DICTATION - 20 min. Correction - 20 min. Correction of Friday's homework exercises. 20 min.	Corrections of written summary handed in on Monday - 20 min. Dictation on equations 20 min. Correction 20 min.	Dictation 20 min. Correction 20 min. Correction of Tuesday's take home grammar exercices.	Corrections of written summary handed in on Wednesday . 20 min. Improvisational sketches 40 min.	Dictation 20 min. Correction 20 min. Correction of homework o the negative constructio 20 min.
10 am 11 am	Review of Past Tense and agreements. Work sheets in class.60 min.	Improvisational sketches 60 min.	Review of the Imperfect/ Past Tense. Work sheets in class. 80 min.	Read part of a scientific article and guess at the conclusion. Then read the conclusion together.60 min	Review of the Subjunctiv Work sheets in class 60 min.
11 am 12 am	Laboratory exercises	Laboratory- oral/aural comprehension.	Laboratory exercises	Laboratory oral comprehension.	Laboratory exercises
H	Exercises in the Past Tense.	Written summary	Exercises in the Imperfect Past Tense.	Written summary	Exercises in the Subjunc ve
LUNCH BREAK					
1 pm 2 pm	Corrections of written summary handed in on Friday - 20 min. physical descriptions of people and objects. 40 min.	Dictation - 20 min. Correction - 20 min. Correction of homework on the Past Tense - 20 min.	Corrections of written summary handed in on Tuesday - 20 min. Dialogues to be constitued from a series of cartoons 40 min.	Dictation - 20 min. Correction - 20 min. Correction of homework on the Imperfect/Past Tense 20 min.	Corrections of written summary handed in on Thursday's - 20 min. Improvisational sket che 40 min.
2 pm 3 pm	Improvisational sketches	Review of reflexives and agreements. Work sheets in class.	Improvisational sketches	Review of negation Work sheets in class	Oral presentations of a scientific article (5X12 min.)
3 pm 4 pm	Laboratory- oral/aural comprehension.	Laboratory exercises	Laboratory- oral/aural comprehension	Laboratory exercises	Laboratory - oral comprehension
⊔	Written summary	Exercises on reflexives	Written summary	Exercises on negation	Written summary

In the grammar part the opening dictation always is a review of the previous lesson's grammar point and serves as its reinforcement. Twenty minutes is devoted to the dictation (a reading of the text, then its dictation and finally a rereading) and twenty minutes to the correction of the sentences the students have put on the board. An additional twenty minutes are spent orally correcting the previous night's homework of written exercises on the grammar point covered that day in class. These elements constitute the first hour of class.

The second hour is composed of a review of a new grammar point which the students have been asked to revise before class and of fill in the blank sentences using the grammar just reviewed.

The final hour is devoted to laboratory exercises where the students hear part of a sentence and must complete it using the grammar they have been working on for the past hour.

Together with an hour's worth of written homework on the day's grammar point, each student spends 3 hours every day on a new grammar lesson and 40 minutes on the former one (the day's dictation).

This is a very intensive rythmn and students find it hard to adjust to during the first few days. The teacher must be careful not to slow down the pace when the students begin to show signs of fatigue. Instead greatly varying the kinds of exercises often helps liven things up. It must be remembered that these students are highly motivated to undertake this internship and that holding the standards high helps them to reach them with greater respect for their own achievements.

Another problem is that such a heavy emphasis on grammar can lead to a short attention span. This can be forestalled by giving the students practical contexts in which this particular grammar point is needed. I try to build the grammar exercises around the improvisation sketches and this has the added advantage of giving them set phrases to work with.

The oral comprehension and conversation part of the day begins with a 20 minute discussion of the corrections of the summaries of scientific articles the students have turned in the previous day. Then forty minutes to an hour is spent on role-playing sketches. Here students are given some basic sentences and asked to improvise a sketch in a situation in which they will find themselves (at the Préfecture where they must get residency papers or in a classroom where they must ask a question or explain an answer to a professor).

This is an occasion for the students to relax while still learning. This exercise is clearly aimed at helping the foreign student's insertion in the society around him. The teacher must provide vocabulary when needed in order to ensure that only French is being used. Students are fined one Franc each time they are heard speaking another language. The money collected pays for a party the night of the last class.

The last hour of this part of the day is devoted to aural comprehension. Students are shown a videocassette recording of the previous night's newscast and asked to summarize it. Attention is drawn to details they miss and cultural phenomena are explained. The students are then given a scientific article to summarize for homework.

At the end of this intensive internship students feel more comfortable in their French environment and adapt quite easily to their scientific courses which they begin two days later. They are by no means completely fluent but are quite capable of total comprehension of an engineering lecture and can make themselves understood when questioning specific points.

Once they are enrolled in engineering course Centrale offers these foreign exchange students a 2 hour a week follow-up course in technical report writing in French. This is designed to help the students compose lab reports and their end of the year project mini-thesis.

Participation in our exchange programs has steadily increased over the past two years and student evaluations of the year spent at Centrale have pointed out the important role the intensive internship has played in this. Next year's pre-enrollment figures point to a 50% increase over participation in 1986. This has greatly enhanced our international reputation as a host school. In fact, requests are now being received to permit exchange program advisors to participate in the intensive program.

Although this internship is designed for engineering students, the principles can easily be adapted for business and professional students once the parameters of their respective needs are determined. The grammar lessons would remain the same and the conversation lessons and written homework could be redirected to other orientations.

Intensive language training is a tool that educators will be called upon to use more and more frequently in the coming years. We must learn to respond to the needs of our students. This means determining what they will need their language acquisition for and setting up a program that will best prepare them to face a future that is more and more international in scope. Centrale's young but highly successful experiment in intensive French instruction for foreign engineering students is proof that by being attentive to their needs, we can help our students more efficiently respond to instruction in a foreign language.

Régine Lambrech

TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE IN FRENCH

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Techniques of Teaching Business Correspondence in French

Jayne Abrate

The techniques of formal correspondence form an integral part of commercial or professional French language instruction. An important means of communication, particularly in international relationships, effective letter writing is a skill which users of the language must frequently employ in a work environment. However, many Americans have great difficulty assimilating the artificial, elaborate form of French business correspondence which contrasts so strongly with the American style where almost anything that conveys the message is acceptable. This structural divergence may arise from the fact that language is often viewed by Americans as merely a tool of communication, while the French jealously guard their language from "impurities" and consider its elegant use an art form in itself. For pedagogical purposes, it is just this dimension of French which creates difficulties in both comprehension and letter composition for students whose mastery of the language is not yet complete. Nevertheless, while textbooks contain sections on correspondence, and several manuals devoted entirely to the subject have been published, little has yet been written suggesting a systematic approach to developing this important skill.

Of course, even native French speakers must learn how to construct clear and concise yet melodious prose, and numerous manuals exist in France devoted to teaching the rudiments of correspondence to high school students in technical or vocational programs. The principles set forth in these texts can be used as the basis of a supplementary component to a general business class, or even an entire course on commercial correspondence for college-level American students of French. This paper will suggest a basic framework for using the material contained in these manuals to introduce the function of various formats and to facilitate deciphering the content. From a thorough understanding of form and content will evolve exercises designed to promote situational analysis of information to be conveyed and both directed and free letter composition with eventual refinement into a workable end result.

Three fundamental areas must be examined in depth for students to gain the competencies and confidence necessary to produce acceptable documents: 1) the purpose and formalities of common types of business letters; 2) the cultural ramifications of style, word selection, and tone; and 3) set expressions and formules which comprise the standard correspondence vocabulary. In addition, the ability to manipulate these building blocks in accordance with a letter's objective and the personal relationship of the correspondants must be fostered. Each point reflects a French character quite distinct from its American equivalent, and when, in the process of formulating a letter, a student does not consider specifically these aspects, his efforts at communication often break down in confusion. Unfortunately, at such a time students often fail to see where they erred and become frustrated and discouraged that their letter fails to attain the standards set by the teacher. In fact, one hurdle may stem from the fact that instructors are asking students to switch from composition and personal essays or term papers where the primary objective is to express personal ideas in a reasonably coherent, grammatical way to a highly stylized form of writing within tight confines and, consequently, with few or no grammatical flaws. In attempting to utilize the numerous idioms, students may switch from using _je_ to _nous_, confuse prepositions, or encounter difficulties with the causative _faire_ construction as in _veuillez me faire parvenir_.... In struggling to put thoughts into French, resorting to direct translation fails them at every turn. Therefore, it is useful to analyze these items from the outset so that the fledgling correspondants can be forewarned.

After a brief presentation of essential stylistic differences between French and English business letters, students consider several sample letters for comprehension purposes. The rationale guiding the composition of a business letter is discussed as well as its place in a French enterprise. Students learn that, although this habit is evolving, the French prefer letters to telephone calls and that even when the telephone is used, a follow-up letter provides confirmation where precise details are involved. A letter is considered a legal document, especially when combined with the common practice of sending _lettres recommandées_. Thus, as LeGoff states, the "cardinal virtue of a French business letter is prudence."[1] By examining the letterhead with its legal and commercial requirements, such as mention of the _raison sociale_, _Registre de Commerce_ number, or _montant du capital_ as well as the address, telephone, and telex, invariable aspects of form can be presented.

Students receive two essential pieces of advice for use in real-life situations: 1)--although obviously not applicable in class--it is better to write in English that in bad French, and if students are unsure of their style or accuracy, it is preferable to use a format taken directly from a reference book; and 2) rather than attempting to translate letters from English to French or vice versa, it is less hazardous to extract the significant information and then to compose a new letter communicating it. Since most undergraduate students beginning commercial French study do not have the necessary skills to translate idiomatically, this second point directs their attention away from messy literal interpretations and encourages them to stick to the formulas.

While sample letters can come from a manual, from a personal file, or be culled from various texts, they should represent clearly the different functions which a letter can fulfill. Among those commonly cited one finds: _lettre d'accompagnement_, _lettre de demande_, _lettre de réponse à une demande_, _lettre d'information_, _lettre de commande_, _réponse à une commande ou accusé de réception_, _accusé de réception d'une commande et proposition d'un autre article_, _lettre de réclamation_, _réponse à une lettre de réclamation_, and _lettre de règlement_.[2] By defining the purpose of the communication, students can focus on what details it is important to mention, reiterate, clarify, or correct. As they proceed to compose their own letters, such a determination aids them in selecting the appropriate information to include and expressions to use. The earliest exercises are comprised of content questions based on a letter. However, these might be expanded and combined with other material by asking students to fill out an order blank, a bank or postal check, a lettre de change, or customs declaration using information given. Not only must students understand the factual content, they begin to see how correspondence fits into the activities of a business and directly influences other areas.

As the class becomes more familiar with various expressions and formulas, an overhead projection can help raise awareness of the subtle overtones communicated by certain introductory phrases. With the main clause covered, the pertinent expression is exposed. By looking only at the first few words of a sentence--j'ai l'honneur de, veuillez nous communiquer, je suis au regret de vous informer, dans l'attente d'une réponse favorable/immédiate--students must determine, for example, what type of letter it is, if a favorable or unfavorable response is being given, or the relationship that exists between the expéditeur and destinataire. Highlighting the various introductory phrases allows students to observe their primary function as subtle signals of tone and nuance rather than as vehicles for conveying information.

Although basic format has been discussed in relation to sample letters, as students prepare to write their own documents, the main elements are schematized. As in the manuals, the letter is divided into zones which contain specific details. A handout listing fine points of presentation that are important from an aesthetic perspective, although not crucial to comprehension is distributed and includes the following:

1) The French add the place the letter is written in front of the date, primarily for legal reasons.
2) The date is written le 4 novembre 1988.[3]
3) Titles are included in the address, repeated in the salutation and formule de politesse, and the title of the destinataire is never abbreviated (although the title of a third party refered to in the text might be).
4) In writing addresses, the French often completely capitalize surnames, cities, and countries. A comma follows the street number, and the zip code precedes the city.
5) Cher is never used in a business letter unless one knows the recipient well; even then, it would not always be appropriate depending upon his or her position in the company hierarchy and the object of the letter.
6) The salutation concludes with a comma rather than a colon.
7) Proper names of the recipient or sender should be avoided in the salutation and the body of the letter.

These guidelines are particularly important to American students because American usage differs in each case. It is stressed that while these details may seem insignificant, such errors give the letter a sloppy appearance and may diminish the writer's credibility in the eyes of the recipient. A French reader would interpret such basic mistakes as a sign of ignorance and, therefore, might give less weight to the more important message.

The formule de politesse provides an elaborate, artificial closing to a formal letter. While this element is relatively easy to grasp, especially if presented as a "formula," some familiarity with the different variants is required before a student can confidently strike out on his own. The formule de politesse equals "sincerely" in English, and in exercises, any attempt on the student's part to "translate" it is penalized. A chart including certain basic structures is furnished, but at a beginning level it is not necessary to be exhaustive or to examine the more intricate points of adjective selection, for example. A standard, neutral ending is proposed, such as Je vous prie d'accepter, Monsieur, l'expression de mes sentiments distingués, as well as one to be used to a superior and with an apology. These fundamentals of letter composition represent the relatively invariable sections which students can master more readily.

Once students have assimilated the framework, they can further analyze purpose and content. Many cultural components influence the objective and tone of a business letter. The hierarchical structure of French business and government, the impersonal tone that prevails in official communication, and the subtle means by which nuances are expressed contribute to the determination of vocabulary, turns of phrase, and formule de politesse chosen. For instance, the strict hierarchy in French organizations establishes to whom a letter should be addressed. While it is acceptable to respond directly to someone who has written to you, if you are initiating contact, particularly when a service or response is required, it is crucial to write to the appropriate individual. While it is not a faux pas in the U.S. to send your request to the person you think most likely to get the job done or to someone you know within a company, in France this might create problems. Similarly, in choosing expressions and introductory phrases, it is quite easy for a beginner to slip unknowingly from cordial to overly familiar or from firm, in demanding a late payment, for example, to insulting. It is essential to understand fully the appropriate nuances, for if the letter is well-written grammatically, the reader will assume that the sender comprehends cultural implications as well. If this is not the case, misunderstandings will arise.

Students must remember that when they are writing a letter in French to a French business or government agency, they are entering the hierarchy and must be aware of their position in it. This applies to the job candidate, the salesman trying to sell his product, the buyer looking for a supplier, the tourist requesting information, or the businessman trying to ship his merchandise. In order to deal effectively with French business, one must remember that every employee is not of equal importance. Although this holds true in any business setting where: "Le fournisseur essaiera de garder un bon contact avec le client malgré les circonstances, alors que le client se contentera de rester poli,"[4] the consequences for future dealings are more directly influenced by the external variables of language.

Thus, in preparing to compose the body of a letter, students are instructed to ask numerous questions in the pre-writing stage. Hopefully, they will have amassed a number of expressions in their notes, handouts, and textbook which provide them with a pool of expressions from which to choose. As with a well-organized piece of writing in any language, there should be an introduction, body, and conclusion which take into consideration the goal of the letter and the cultural input including:

1) Who are the sender and recipient, and what is their business and/or personal relationship?

2) What is the position of each indivdual within his/her company?

3) What is the general purpose of the letter?

4) Do you require specific information or action in response to this letter? Is so, is it out of the ordinary?[8]

5) Are you writing for yourself (that is, for something that specifically concerns your area of responsibility) or as a representative of your entire organization?

Concerning the specific text:

6) What information should you include in the introduction (reason for writing, reference to previous communication, referal)?

7) What important information to be requested and/or communicated should you include in the body (items, quantity, color, price, shipping charges, for instance, in relation to an order)?

8) For the conclusion, what result or response do you expect and when?

9) What point (thanks, urgency, personal comment), if any,

should you use to open the formule?

In many circumstances, business letters will be of such a nature that a standard format, if not form letter, can be used. In the event that a letter has to be written sur mesure, these questions prove helpful in eliciting responses which determine the underlying structure and establish the tone of the correspondence.

Both Herman[6] and LeGoff have wisely suggested placing any letter-writing activity in the context of a student-created business which must react to a variety of inquiries and circumstances. Such exercises force students to consider several perspectives of a problem as well as the consequences of their actions in the course of answering coherently and realistically. In the beginning, students can simply adapt sample letters or pick and choose appropriate sentences to convey a message, but they must remember that the skill of business letter writing is based on building blocks and that, short of possessing complete mastery of the language, linguistic creativity is discouraged.

As a result, subsequent exercises seek to improve the learners' facility in manipulating the structures. They are actively encouraged to eliminate such glaring errors as including s'il vous plaît instead of veuillez, using an imperative rather than a causative faire construction, or speaking directly when the conditionnel de politesse would be more appropriate. In addition to composing letters from sample sources, they are also asked to rewrite a given letter, substituting equivalent expressions whenever possible or eliminating terms such as envoyer, dire, faire in favor of synonyms

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like expédier, informer, or passer. During all testing, students may use books, dictionary, and notes to complete their letters.

As a further means of achieving internalization of the idioms and structures of formal correspondence, a computer program is under development which would take them through the various steps involved in composing a letter. Questions are asked, and a series of possible expressions is offered depending on the answers. The student is then free to select and/or modify one that appeals to him. For instance, an initial question might be: "Has there been any previous contact with the recipient to which this letter is a response?" with a possible follow-up: "Was it a letter, phone call, visit, telex, etc.?" If the answer to the first is "yes," a list of opening phrases appears, including en réponse à votre lettre, me référant à votre lettre, or je vous accuse réception de votre lettre, with lettre varying to agree with the answer to the follow-up question. Once the student has typed his choice, the program might then ask if he wishes to include the date of this communication. Having considered a series of issues raised by the program's prompts, the student will have typed a complete letter which, at the conclusion, he is invited to reread and revise.

The issues raised in teaching business correspondence may prove significant hindrances to communication and are sometimes neglected in favor of achieving a final product. Students are being asked to perform a new kind of writing for which they are often ill-prepared. By taking into account questions of cultural values, examining the meanings and subtleties of common idioms, and practicing their manipulation in a specific context students are better able to sift through the verbiage to comprehend French business correspondence as well as to produce more effective letters on their own.

NOTES

[1] Claude LeGoff, "Pour une pédagogie de la correspondence d'affaires," French Review, 56, 2 (Dec. 1982), p. 244.

[2] A.M. Kulunkian, Correspondance et Techniques d'expression professionnelles (Paris: Nathan, 1985), pp. 1-47.

[3] Correct presentation of the date bears mentioning, since students learn this in elementary French but regularly forget as they write their letters, adding de after the month, for example.

[4] Denise Guback, Français commercial: Théorie et correspondance (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1984), p.142.

[5] In general, I tell my students that they more unusual the request, the more polite must be the phrase, and in order to render it more politely in formal French, one generally uses more words: veuillez me faire savoir vs. Ayez l'obligeance de bien vouloir me faire savoir.

[6] Gerald Herman, "Teaching the Skills of French Business Correspondence to American Undergraduates: Problems and Techniques," French Review, 61, 1 (Oct. 1987), pp. 12-20.

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ENTREPRENEURS AND ENTERPRISES: THE MAKING OF A COURSE UNIT IN BUSINESS FRENCH--A CASE STUDY

by

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ENTREPRENEURS AND ENTERPRISES; THE MAKING OF A COURSE UNIT IN BUSINESS FRENCH: A CASE STUDY.

INTRODUCTION

This paper is devoted to the French enterprise. My objective is to highlight a unit in business French that would call upon the students'imagination and desire to become entrepreneurs, while providing key information on the structure and the working of a company as well as on its environment.

The core of this unit features the creation of a fictitious company. A key dimension in this unit is its flexibility. As I will indicate in the handouts, the establishment of a company, its initial operations lend themselves to innumerable exercises, whose length and difficulty can be tailored to the needs of students at various levels of language proficiency and business knowledge.

Another key objective to be met is greater language fluency and better proficiency in order to function in business situations in a foreign language. To this effect, the whole unit is an attempt to create intense role playing, generate discussions based on and calling upon a special terminology, and handle some key concepts of French business.

CLASS SET-UP

The unit takes up a minimum of 6 sessions. If commercial company law has not been broached, a short lecture with hand outs highlighting the main forms of companies is necessary. At any rate, capsules of information have to be carefully distributed so that students have time to assimilate the new concepts as they go along.

The class is divided into groups for the entire unit. Short lectures and group discussions during which the instructor is on call, alternate. Proposals from each group are then presented, discussed and one solution is decided upon, before carrying to the next step.

The instructor can illustrate certain steps through a dialogue on the same subject to be acted out. Some improvised role-playing may also nicely conclude a particular session.

The "one-step-at-a-time" approach is important. So is the discussion of the various choices and the reason for the final decision. Essential also is the students'ability (and willingness) to impersonate the company founders and immerse themselves in the situation presented. The free play of imagination can spur a great deal of enthusiasm among the participants.

OUTLINE

This unit simulates the creation of the company, from its inception to the day when production and sales begin. Very often, a few individuals in the class have dreamt of innovative product or services.......And it is best to start with some of the students' own ideas and elaborate on them with the class. For those who have spent a substantial amount of time in France, it is worth exploring what they found was lacking in France and what product or service they would like to introduce.

Today, however let us assume that the business idea has emerged. Four major aspects will have to be considered.

First comes the legal form to be chosen for the company; then follows the establishment process per se, namely the various steps to be taken for the company to be officially registered and then be allowed to operate; at the same time, while all the papers are being filed, the founders have to consider the whole project and decide upon a suitable organization in which the firm may operate smoothly; Lastly, in the final stage, the associates need to put together a consistent and tentative marketing strategy, based on some research on the firm's environment. At this point, the new company's product, its competitors, its channels of distribution have to be studied, to lead to an initial promotion campaign. In a nutshell, the four aspects to be investigated and discussed are: legal form; registration process; company organization; commercial strategy.

The program outlined above, if carried out in detail, may well take half of the semester, and require skills way beyond our liberal arts and foreign language background. I hope to convince you today that with the help of a few practical sources, some consultation with business professionals, an attractive package can be put together for students at various levels of proficiency. For instance, at the lower end of the spectrum, it may be sufficient to have the groups identify the main steps to be taken and give out more information and create exercises around these steps. A great number of dialogues, business letters and memos can be generated; vocabulary exercises can focus on the new terms, for example partnerships, limited liability company, stock company, board of directors, shareholder.

At the other end of the spectrum, for an audience of advanced undergraduates in their second or third semester of business French, such a unit may require several weeks and indeed cover or provide a review of several items on the syllabus. A lot of free play is to be expected here; it may become even more interesting if the instructor can assign those students working on a business major, such as marketing, specific tasks. They could be in charge of presenting an example of market study, preferably one on which they themselves have worked to set some objectives and propose an outline for the new firm's marketing research. Similarly, students in accounting and finance, communication arts, advertising, as well as anyone who has business experience can be called upon.

THE IDEA

For our case, today, let us imagine, an American named Matthew (Matt), for example, who works for a medium-sized American company that manufactures and distributes a line of sports equipment (clothes, shoes, and equipment). The company has innovative products, an open mind and decides to distribute its products in France. Matt, of course would have an interest in France; by the way, he spent a year abroad and his best French friend, Jacques, is now in business. He is an associate in a consulting firm and Matt is to meet with him and explore the various options for his firm's expansion. Matt's company, because of its limited resources is interested in linking up with some French partners to share in the initial investment. Matt's company plans on contributing about FF. 200.000 .

As indicated by the preliminary research, the French market looks promising. Matt then goes to France to make contacts with Jacques to consult him about the whole project. This initial step can be summarized in a dialogue featuring Matt's first meeting with his friend Jacques, accompanied by Nicole, an other associate, in which the venture is set forth . This dialogue can serve as an introduction to the "piece de resistance", which is the choice of a legal form for the future company.

THE COMPANY'S LEGAL FORM.

At this point, the students should be asked to review their notes on company statutes and/or study the appropriate handout. The sole proprietorship being excluded, the main differences in the company forms deal with the amount of start-up capital, the way it is divided, consequently the managerial power, the liability issue and the legal requirements in terms of control (audit) and disclosure of information.

Commercial companies in France can be either partnerships (société de personnes) or stock companies (sociéte de capitaux), with the exception of the limited liability company (société à responsabilité limitée ou S.a.r.l.).

In document 1, I have attempted to present the necessary information on the company legal forms focusing on the capital, the shareholders, the management and the liability. This introduction can be followed by a discussion session devoted to the advantages and disadvantages of each business form. What form should matt. choose?

Beyond the legal considerations, the groups should examine power of decision, control of the company's equity and flexibility for management purposes but also, possible expansion.

This exercise can be assigned on its own as an illustration of a lecture on company organization; several examples of business projects can be given for the students to consider; each may lean towards one form rather than another. These examples can be taken from books; more importantly, though, if the instructor has any opportunity to go to France, he/she may want to contact several small or medium-sized businesses or various organizations, such Chambers of Commerce, or even friends and their "relations", to collect information on some businesses to be used as examples.

THE ESTABLISHMENT PROCESS

let us now get to the crux of the matter. The business idea and the funds available for the operation, the flexibility and the desire to retain as much power of decision as possible have led Matt. to favor the S.a.r.l. Jacques and Nicole have contacted two people who are very interested in participating in the new company. Why not call them, Hélène Brun and Henri Martin. The latter, by the way, owns several sports shops in various cities. After a first meeting, each agrees to contribute FF 100.000 . They also see good opporutnities for a new line of sports wear and equipment to be distributed through sports shops and department stores. The French partners are familiar with this market niche.

The groups of students can now impersonate the various founders and the consultants. The establishment can be outlined as presented in document 2. The ratification of the statutes represents a key step. To be registered with the INSEE, Social Security and the Tax administration are the indispensable steps before operations can start. Various exercises are possible for the students to become part of the process; one of them could be to entrust each of the founders with a specific task to be performed before the foundation meeting; one could look into the question of the name; another work on the company headquarter building; one would collect funds and deposit them at the bank. Each student-founder should know what their task entails, possibly have filled out one or several documents, to be prepared for the final meeting at which the statutes are examined, agreed upon, ratified and managers appointed.

Another activity could be for the founders to look into what the various registrations mean, for themselves and for the future employees: for instance, What does URSSAF stand for ? What is its role? This part could be ideal to introduce- in a simplified, yet applied manner- the health, retirement, unemployment system. Furthermore, a short presentation on labor laws - hiring, promoting, labor representation- could also be interesting.

The process has led to the creation of Sportsloisirs, 28, Cours Vitton, 69006 Lyon, S.a.r.l. with a capital of FF 300.000. R.C. Lyon B 4586939. Each share is worth FF 100.000.

While the company file is being processed, intense work is going on. The legal statute is not a guarantee of commercial success. The company operations have to rationally organized and a commercial strategy developed. The students-founders have now to examine what services will be needed for the company to operate smoothly and successfully.

THE COMPANY STRUCTURE

Before attempting to structure their own operation, the founders can be made aware of various company organizations, through the study of a several company charts or "organigramme" On Document 3 a few examples of company charts are given.

The charts can be supported by a short explanation highlighting the basic needs that a given form fulfills, namely tasks and functions. Each group can be assigned to propose a tentative form after studying the document and the example. Each group will perceive the company's operations in a different light. For instance, how important will manufacturing be? Will Sportsloisirs import, adapt and sell the products of the American company, or will it manufacture the clothes and the equipment, under American License or Know-how in France? If the former solution is chosen, a special division may be necessary to oversee the steady flow of imports and take care of customs, transportation etc...?

Once various questions have been debated, a tentative structure can be displayed. The organigramme of the new company would resemble something like this:

President Directeur
Général

Directeur adjoint

service commercial

service import-export

service production

service administratif

Once the overall structure has been outlined, each group could be assigned the task of presenting a more detailed chart for each of the main services.

This unit is largely base on the students' capacity to imagine such an operation. As they start to impersonate the various protagonists, they are required to make some choices, from a more business point of view. This is particularly true in the last two sections of the unit when the company organization and the marketing strategy are considered.

For example, if group 4 is assigned to put together the various components of the administrative division, several questions could be given to the students to think about, thus guiding them towards the main function of the administrative division in our company. the financial side and the personnel (or human resources) are still to be examined. The latter function is an important one, for it will deal with hiring, promoting, remunerating, training, as well as with the whole communication aspect in the company. (for instance, facilitate communication through meeting and various other social events within the company).
Accordingly, one could represent the administrative division as follows:

service administratif

comptabilité
budget/ financement
gestion des resources humaines

The same approach can be used for all the other services. Students may be guided through a set of simple questions which should always lead to a graphic representation of what a given division would be like.

COMMERCIAL STRATEGY

The key to success for our company is to find the adequate markets for its product. As a conclusion to this unit,
I would like to introduce several topics and questions to be broached , based on readings in marketing and real-life projects.

For clarity's sake, allow me to recap: We, Sportsloisirs, S.a.r.l., are entitled to distribute (and later, may be, even manufacture), a whole line of sports and leisure products: clothes -sweat shirts and T. shirts, warm-up suits, bathing suits, jerseys, shorts, socks- shoes -regular sports shoes, but more importantly jogging shoes with special designs, shoes for basket ball, tennis, soccer and golf- Sportsloisirs, thanks to its American supplier will have a special tennis and golf department.

Consequently, this section of the unit is designed to have the students acquire a better grasp of the marketing dimension of a firm, familiarize themselves with a given terminology, as well as formulate an initial promotion campaign, based on the findings of the marketing research. The very last assignment will be to imagine the ideal advertising spot to reach the targeted consumers, on a given market segment.

The section hinges upon three different steps: one, to acquire a knowledge of the sports and leisure market in France and break it down in terms of segments (the sports teams, sports and leisure associations...), and consumer characteristics (age, socio-professional categories, behavior); the second step will be to look into the channels of distribution; the last one, to choose a point of entry on a market, a line of product to be sold, an advertising campaign to launch the new brand.

A few questions will help bring out the main notions and focus on the new terminology; in addition, a special set of questions can be given to have students apply, let's say the concepts of market segmentation to our company's case. Another exciting way is to ask a student in the class with a major in marketing to direct the class during the sessions devoted to marketing.Moreover, to prepare for the advertising campaign various resources can be used, particularly television spots and newspaper ads; several ads can be compared in order to identify targeted consumers in relation to the messages and the products advertised. Several ads for competing products (cars, or coffee brands, for instance) can underline the relationship between message,audience,consumers and product. These ads, particularly, the T.V. ones are always very successful and create some exciting moments in class.

CONCLUSION

This unit generates more and more excitement and a growing sense of common purposes among the groups involved. As the sessions unfold, one can sense a deeper desire to have this company off the ground and successful. In putting this unit together my utmost desire was to steer away from a business French class that is a letter writing in French in disguise. My aim was to branch off to a different type of syllabus in which business terminology and concepts link up with society and culture when seen from within a living organism; the enterprise.

Allow me to explore this aspect: our programs in foreign language for business can successfully expand if they tie in with the new wave of curriculum internationalization that is taking place in may Schools of business. In this case, however, our contribution to the strengthening of international expertise may be less in teaching technical business language than in teaching (if possible) cultural proficiency, i.e. an ability to function (understand, decipher, act) in a foreign business culture (values, representations, behavior) in its evolution and in its complexity.

And here is another approach to the question of enterprise and entrepreneurs, namely that in the past ten years, in France, there has been a formidable shift in the public's attitude towards the enterprise. In the 7o's, companies were the place where exploitation and alienation could best be seen. Who could have said that 10 years later, the socialist, will extol the business enterprise, while, to quote from Philippe Bouchard la guerre des deux roses, " les valeurs de la gauche-solidarité, nationalisation, droits de l'homme, conduite organisée de l'économie, protections sociales-s'estompent.. au moment où l'individualisme, la recherche, le gout de l'entreprise, l'innovation,.. s'imposent dans la classe des 25-40 ans, qui sont les enfants de mai 68". This change in the value would very interesting to study and link to in a unit on business enterprise in France. But that is another story... may be next year.

Note: Original pages numbered 960 through 974 are duplicates of original pages numbered 945 through 959. They have been removed.

"WHEN TEACHERS MUST BECOME AUTHORS: PREPARING MATERIALS FOR TEACHING FRENCH FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS"

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October 29th, 1987

Abstract

Title: When Teachers Must Become Authors ... Preparing materials for teaching French for business and the professions.

Length of presentation: about 20 minutes

Primary Audience: Both language and business educators in the French language. Materials shown will cover textbooks in the fields of law, recreology, technology and commerce.

Summary:

One of the many difficulties facing teachers of languages for special purposes is the shortage of suitable materials.

The educators who set out to teach business or professional French are either qualified language teachers or experts in the subject matter, but rarely both. The same can be said about the teaching materials: they are either suitable for teaching the language without a direct application to a specific field, or else they teach the subject matter (economics, law, etc.) to students who are working in their own language.

This paper will attempt to show how some professors in the Department of French Studies at Concordia University in Montreal have tried to solve these compounded difficulties. In order to retrain themselves and to penetrate into the world whose language they were to teach, they had to undertake intensive research in the subject. In so doing, they gathered original documents and compiled bibliographies which led to the preparation of course materials and eventually, often after some years of efforts and experimentation, resulted in the publication of textbooks for the use of other teachers and students in the field.

One such textbook, "Droit au but", for the teaching of legal French, will be presented from its conception to its present form; other teacher-created materials will be shown, accompanied by bibliography handouts and lists of the many sources where original materials for French for special purposes can be obtained in Quebec and elsewhere in Canada.

THE HIGHLIGHTS AND PITFALLS OF DEVELOPING AN INTERCULTURAL WORKSHOP IN FRANCE

by

Professor Cheri Frey-Hartel
and
Ms. Duffy Kasum

Cardinal Stritch College
Milwaukee, WI 53217

THE HIGHLIGHTS AND PITFALLS OF DEVELOPING AN INTERCULTURAL WORKSHOP IN FRANCE

Presentation by Professors Cheri Frey-Hartel and Duffy Kasum, Cardinal Stritch College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

A year ago I had my first opportunity to attend this conference on Languages and Communications for World Business and the Professions sponsored by Eastern Michigan University. The workshops and conferences stressed the successful integration of business strategies, cultural awareness and communicative competency in foreign languages. I returned to Milwaukee convinced of the benefits to the business community and our students of offering a course patterned after prototype courses discussed at the conference. In our presentation this morning, my colleague, Cheri Frey-Hartel, and I will share both the successes and the problems encountered in developing the Intercultural Training Workshop: France. The course was a combination of three elements: pre-departure classes to prepare participants to maximize the benefits of their travel; in-France activities that included visits to three multinational companies and a visit with the commercial attache of the United States Embassy; and post-departure activities that included reflexion, evaluation, and critique of the program. The program was available to businessmen and women interested in marketing to France or already involved in the import/export business, to students in Communications, Foreign Languages, or International Business, and to interested members of the community. I will discuss the technical aspects of program development while Cheri will discuss the instructional techniques used.

WHY DEVELOP THIS COURSE?

We had the opportunity to ask ourselves this question over and over as the course progressed. The answers to this basic question varied depending on which stage we were at in the course. The main reasons for this course were as follows:

1. INTERNATIONAL INVESTMENT IN WISCONSIN

Wisconsin has experienced an increasing amount of international corporate activity. More than 18 Wisconsin companies have developed affiliates in France and a number of French companies have invested in Wisconsin. Although experts in their particular fields, many businessmen discover that they are not well prepared for the stresses, subtleties, and complexities of doing business with foreign nationals.

2. INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS PROGRAM

Cardinal Stritch College had just initiated an undergraduate major in International Business. It is the only college in the area to offer programs in international business specifically targeted at the undergraduate level.

3. INTERCULTURAL PROGRAM

The Communication Arts Department had begun a course in Intercultural Communications that was quite successful and in high demand. Students recognize the need for more effective communication based on an awareness and appreciation of cultural differences not only on an international basis but on a national and a local level as well.

4. FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM

I had been recently hired with a mandate to revitalize the foreign language program. At the present time, the College does not have a language requirement for the liberal arts degree but there is a solid commitment by the College that foreign languages be a viable option for the students.

Taking these four factors into account, we used an interdisciplinary approach to course development that would be beneficial to all concerned.

TIME LINE FOR DEVELOPMENT OF COURSE.

APRIL, 1986.

After returning from the conference, I met with the Academic Dean to discuss the details of the EMU conference and to propose a course that could be offered by the College using an interdisciplinary approach. With his support and encouragement, I began contacting travel agencies both local and national to determine the services available and to solicit bids.

MAY, 1986.

Meetings were held with faculty from the International Business Department and Communication Arts Department to solicit their input and support for the formation of the course. Research was conducted using Library resources to identify companies involved in international business in Wisconsin and to geographically locate those businesses that are in close proximity to Milwaukee. In addition, phone calls were made to the United States Department of Commerce, the Milwaukee Association of Commerce, the Wisconsin Manufacturers Association, Forward Wisconsin, and the Milwaukee Journal. The phone calls served two purposes: to seek help to recognize companies that would be willing to collaborate on this project and to inform institutions of the innovative program being sponsored by the College.

JUNE, 1986.

The Course Proposal Outline for submission to the Undergraduate Curriculum Committee was finalized. We continued the bibliographic search and reading of books and articles as preparation for the development of the Student Workbook.

JULY, 1986.

Meetings were held with the local travel agent to finalize the travel portion of the course and to insure that the travel agent had a good knowledge of the academic portion of the program so that his agency could accurately answer questions that were directed to them. The brochures for the trip portion of the program were printed. Memos were sent to local companies asking for their help in arranging on-site visits in France with their counterparts. A week later, I phoned the same companies to explain our new program.

AUGUST, 1986.

The College sent press releases to local magazines and newspapers advertising the Intercultural Training Workshop: France.

SEPTEMBER, 1986.

The first class meeting was held to explain the details of the course and the travel portion of the trip. Letters were sent to the French Consul asking him to write introductory letters to the French companies on our behalf. These letters were followed by letters from the College explaining the course and requesting on site visits.

OCTOBER - DECEMBER, 1986.

Pre-departure sessions continued. The Governor sent letters to the American companies requesting their support. Our Congressmen contacted the American Embassy in Paris requesting their support. The Wisconsin World Trade Center became actively involved in establishing the multinational visits in France.

JANUARY, 1987.

Twenty-one participants spent a successful week in Paris experiencing cultural differences and learning about international trade options and opportunities.

THE PITFALLS.

The following is a list of un-anticipated difficulties that we encountered as we developed the technical aspect of the course and some suggestions for avoiding similar problems:

1. LENGTH OF TIME FOR TRANSATLANTIC CORRESPONDANCE.

From our experience, all transatlantic correspondance takes a much longer time and you can expect a 3-4 week delay in response to letters. Give the French Consul 3-4 weeks to prepare a letter of introduction before your follow-up letter is sent so that your letter does not arrive in advance of the Consul's letter.

2. NECESSITY TO FOLLOW ESTABLISHED PROCEDURES.

French companies have definite guidelines or protocol which must be recognized. Have your contact in the American company find out which procedures are required and follow them even if they seem laborious. We can't emphasize enough the importance of following correct procedures.

3. IMPORTANCE OF INVOLVING THE LOCAL BUSINESS AND POLITICAL COMMUNITY.

Research aside, the most important contacts we made for the eventual establishment of the three multinational company visits were because of aid from our Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Congressman, and the Wisconsin World Trade Center, a recently established organization for the promotion of international trade.

4. EARLY ADVERTISEMENT OF THE PROGRAM.

We began advertising in August for the January program. It would be best to begin advertisement of the program at least eight months in advance. Participants need the lead time to assess their financial resources available for the program, to get passports, visas, luggage, etc.

5. IN-COUNTRY CONTACT.

We did not have a faculty member in Paris in advance to meet personally with French Company representatives to finalize the details of the company visits. We did ask the Director of our French travel agency to make these contacts for us. However, we learned that this was not very acceptable. 'As a consequence, our final conference with a large multinational company (IBM) was not on the agenda until I contacted the Manager in person when the group arrived in Paris.

6. NECESSITY OF SOMEONE WHO CAN COMMUNICATE IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE OF THE COUNTRY VISITED.

Although all our correspondance indicated that the participants would need company presentations in English, we discovered that many details of the travel and company visits in France required someone who was fluent in the language and understood cultural differences to better negotiate problems as they occured.

7. WRITTEN LIST OF PASSPORT NUMBERS, BIRTHDATES, AND JOB TITLES OF PARTICIPANTS.

To visit the United States Embassy, it was necessary to furnish the above information a day in advance of our meeting. It was difficult to collect this information on site since participants were touring, working on different parts of the workbook activities, etc. Surprisingly, the French companies also required the above information and were particularly interested in job titles. In general, French companies do not promote visits to their corporate headquarters or their companies.

8. RECOGNITION BY THE COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY OF THE TIME COMMITMENT AND FINANCES INVOLVED.

Neither Cheri nor I could have imagined the extra time required by this program at least on a first-time basis. There is a lot of correspondance involved both in French and English via letters and phone calls. Budget allocations for paper, printing, xeroxing, postage, etc. need to be considered in advance.

In conclusion, the program was even more successful than originally anticipated. No program is, however, perfect; we look forward to offering it again in the Fall and anticipate refining the program to keep abreast of the latest information and research available.

THE HIGHLIGHTS AND PITFALLS OF DEVELOPING AN INTERCULTURAL WORKSHOP IN FRANCE

Presentation Outline Draft #1

- I. Situation
  - A. only 4 2-2½ hr. predeparture meetings
  - B. student body was varied
    - 1. high school student
    - 2. traditional undergraduate students taking the course for credit
    - 3. nontraditional undergraduate students taking the course for credit
    - 4. adults presently doing business with the French
    - 5. adults wishing to do business with the French
    - 6. adults going to Paris for a vacation
- II. Goals
  - A. To sensitize individuals to culture in general and the French culture in specific
    - 1. to produce an understanding of the basic cultural values, world views, language, and non-verbal communicative techniques used by the French;
    - 2. to develop an appreciation of cultural differences and a positive response to these elements of the culture;
    - 3. to supply students with basic survival skills necessary in the French culture
  - B. To incorporate a variety of educational/training strategies and techniques
- III. Workbook
  - A. Constructed from over 36 sources
  - B. Provided a series of articles and portions of texts covering many areas
    - 1. from: how to convert fahrenheit to centigrade
    - 2. to: a philisophical treatise on what it means to be French
  - C. Provided an extensive annotated bibliography
    - 1. Intercultural Communication in general
    - 2. French Culture in specific
  - D. Offered the students a variety of assignments to complete in order to earn their grade
    - 1. Grading based upon a point system with each assignment weighted differently
    - 2. Activities varied in degree of risk, involvement, and difficulty
    - 3. Activities were constructued with a focus on preparation, participation, and reflection
      - a. before experience portion of activity
      - b. during experience portion of activity
      - c. after experience portion of activity
    - 4. (Optional) Provide a sample activity
- IV. Classroom Activities
  - A. Utilized a number of methods
    - 1. panel discussions by French and Belgium citizens
    - 2. educational videotapes
    - 3. popular French films
    - 4. simulations
    - 5. discussions
    - 6. group activities
    - 7. lecture/presentations

- due to time restrictions, IV will probably not be in Oral Presentation

V. How the workbook and the pre-departure meetings met the goals of intercultural training as posited by Warren and Adler (1977) and discussed by Gudykunst and Kim (1982)
   A. To provide information on other cultures
      1. Culture General
         a. culture assimilator activity
         b. readings and lectures on terminology and impact of culture on communication
      2. Culture Specific
         a. articles/activities discussing the connotation of words, appropriate gestures and use of space, values
         b. assignments including the writing of a French Culture Resume and presenting of reports on the Cutural Heritage of France
   B. To provide occupational skills to the individual in terms of the culture in which he or she will work
      1. In-country tours and presentations provided culture specific insight
         a. 3 Businesses (including IBM)
         b. Commercial Attache, US Embassy Paris
         c. Guidelines for questions to be asked during these visits were in the workbook
      2. Lecture and video (Going International: Managing the Overseas Experience) discussing the relationship of ICC and Business.
   C. To develop tolerance of different attitudes, values and beliefs
      1. The goal was to supply information to develop the cognitive component of an attitude and experiences to develop the affective component
         a. Activities/Readings to learn about values and beliefs
         b. viewing of Small Change (Truffaut) and interactions with French citizens to promote empathy
   D. To provide individuals with the culturally appropriate behavioral response
      1. Survival Language Skills were taught and practiced
      2. French/Belgium panel discussed appropriate behaviors
      3. Analysis of behaviors in Small Change through lecture and discussion
   E. To help individuals deal with culture shock
      1. Simulation activity BAFA BAFA was done
   F. To develop cultural self awareness.
      1. 'Other cultures might be' activity identified own culture as well as others
      2. Interpretations of how the French see us were given in lectures and panel discussions
      3. Activities reflecting identification of major American values as identified in Readings ("What are our Major Cultural Values? What do we value most?" Samovar) and behavioral representations in everyday life
   G. To develop in the individual an orientation that will enable that person to experience a new culture in a positive way
      1. DIE (describe, interpret, evaluate) technique was taught and diaries utilizing the approach were kept by student while in France
      2. Article and discussion of the distinction between a stereotype and generalization were part of the workbook and course
      3. Article on the characteristics of the cross-culturally effective individual ("Human Communication and Cross-Cultural Effectiveness", Ruben) was read

4. The student was put at ease by having many major needs met.
   a. how to take a metro
   b. how to ask for and interpret directions
   c. how to place orders and make purchases

Gudykunst, W.B. & Hammer, M.R. Basic training design: approaches to intercultural training. Handbook of Intercultural Training. New York: Pergamon Press, 1982. 1, 118-154.

Warren, D. & Adler, P. An experiential approach to instruction in intercultural communication. Communication Education, 1977. 26, 128-134.

Prepared by: Cheri Frey-Hartel
3/6/88

VIII. BUSINESS GERMAN

RETRAINING IN BUSINESS GERMAN THROUGH THE GOETHE INSTITUTE IN WEST GERMANY

by

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and

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Retraining in Business German through the Goethe Institute in West Germany

Introduction:

The purpose of this paper is to alert college instructors of German to a unique opportunity to become more confident and knowledgeable in their teaching of Business German.

Most German instructors have probably found themselves in the same dilemma as I did when I began teaching a course in Business German. Not once during my Ph.D. training had I been given an assignment that dealt by the greatest stretch of imagination with something we might call "language for the professional". I can certainly not claim that my emphasis on baroque poetry prepared me for the task my department chairman handed to me a few years later, that is: start a program in Business German.

I was excited. My spirit of adventure sensed new challenges on a playground whose turf had been little used so far. The first obstacle had already been overcome: contrary to the experience of many of my colleagues at other institutions, my administration backed me up fully in my endeavours. I may add here that the administrators were eager to satisfy students' demands for such a course.

I was also scared. I certainly was aware of my lack of knowledge in the fields of economics, finance, management, or marketing. Some of this fear I overcame when I reminded myself that I was not about to teach German Business, but Business German - simply another branch of language. Some basic texts dealing with business-related matters proved that the new set of vocabulary was easily learned but the topics remained to be "Neuland". I managed fine during the first course, eagerly searching for background material of the chapters to be discussed the following week. The students' participation was livelier than in any of my other classes and their enthusiasm was the positive feedback that encouraged me to make the course even more interesting. Rather than being intimidated by the knowledge that my business students brought to class, I had them give presentations on the differing aspects of German and American business practices. Although the course went quite well, I could not help but feel uncomfortable because the subject I was teaching continued to be somewhat foreign to me, I never felt a personal relationship to my subject matter. Continued background reading provided me with an increasing amount of knowlede of the subject I was teaching but I new that before offering this course again, I had to do some "erleben" instead of "erlesen".

Advertisement by the Goethe House:

The solution to my problem came when the Goethe House New York offered me a stipend for participation in a seminar on Business German in Düsseldorf, West Germany. There was an opportunity to personally experience some of the aspects that I taught about but the knowledge of which I had acquired solely through reading. The special attraction to this seminar lay in the advertized "active involvement of the participants". It turned out that the participants did indeed do most of the research work themselves.

The participants:

The 28 participants from 5 European countries plus the USA came with slightly different expectations. All hoped to gain some experience in business related fields that were still foggy in their minds - but each one had a different problem area. It may be safe to say, though, that everyone was looking forward to speaking "Business German" for two weeks, with experts in the field as well as with one another.

Arrangements:

Each participant had a private room in Schloß Mickeln, outside of Düsseldorf where most of the meals were eaten and where a few lectures and organisational meetings took place. The Goethe Institute paid for health insurance, lodging, breakfast, and one warm meal on all seminar days, bus fare to and from program sites as well as to and from those places which the participants chose individually for their respective research projects. In addition, everybody received 200,-DM to defray the cost of eating out. The air fare to and from Germany was not included.

The program:

The seminar program offered the participants the following:
1. A 14-day immersion into business related German
2. Establishing German business contacts
3. Discussions with European instructors of Business German
4. Collecting material for Business German Courses at home
5. Research on one topic of particular interest

Research:

The choice of research areas was left to the individual participants and included the following topics:
1. The changing Ruhrgebiet
2. Banks and the stock market
3. Employment policy
4. Economic policy
5. Workers' co-determination
6. Environmental protection
7. Marketing/advertising
8. Economic Journalism
9. Living and working conditions
10. Export strategies
11. Sources of energy
12. Business management

The participants split up into small research groups of 2-5 people and were given time in the morning or afternoon to pursue their work. The seminar leaders had prepared a list of contact persons for the various research areas who had previously consented to be available for interviews. Most research groups found additional sources of information. Whatever time was not taken up by research activities, was spent on visits to industrial and governmental firms and on excursions under the guidance of the seminar leaders.

Being connected with the Goethe Institut was an obvious advantage. All doors opened when we identified ourselves, and we gained access to enterprises which are generally not known for their open door policy. The hospitality ranged from sightseeing tours, interviews, and film demonstrations on the particular business to lunches and social evenings with dinner in the typical old Düsseldorf atmosphere.

The following institutions had a reception for us, either as a whole group or as one research unit:

1. Wirtschaftsministerium
2. Amt für Wirtschaftsförderung
3. Wirtschaftswoche
4. Wirtschaftsamt der Stadt Düsseldorf
5. Industrie- und Handelskammer
6. Handwerkskammer
7. Landesarbeitsamt
8. Hauptamt der Stadt Düsseldorf
9. Rathaus der Stadt Düsseldorf
10. Umweltbehörde der Stadt Düsseldorf
11. CDU, FDP, Die Günnen
12. Deutsche Bank
13. Krupp Steel
14. University of Düsseldorf (Dept. of Economic Journalism)
15. Berufliche Schulen
16. Amerikanisches Konsulat
17. Rheinische Post
18. Handelsblatt
19. Schlösser-Brauerei
20. Hannen-Brauerei
21. Westdeutsche Landesbank
22. Rheinisch-Westfälische Börse
23. Mitsubishi Bank
24. Fuji Bank

During the last few days of our seminar, each research group worked in the basement of Schloß Mickeln on oldfashioned manual typewriters to put together a paper which combined each participant's research activity into one coherent text. The photocopied product of these two weeks' activities was disrtibuted to all participants who could take it home and possibly use some of it in their courses.

Benefit:

Our photocopied research papers, the many pounds of advertisement and informative material were tangible evidence of our active involvement in this two week seminar. More valuable, however, were the excursions into the Ruhr district and accompaning visits to places to which a private visitor would not have access such as the half-day tour of Krupp Steel, the private reception and lunch at the casino of the Deutsche Bank, the hours of discussion with journalists of the Handelsblatt who not only had answers to our questions but could also discuss today's German language in the field of economic journalism.
We were in contact with those people who lived Business German, whose livelihood depended on the smooth running of their organization. Therefore, it is now with quite a different feeling that I discuss "banking" or "business management" or "co-determination" in my Business German courses - I have "erlebt" these topics.

When I now read articles in the "Wirtschaftswoche" oder "Handelsblatt", I re-live the Düsseldorf experience, feel the grandeur of the Deutsche Bank, remember the narrow mine shafts that produce the coal which is of vital importance to Germany's ecocomy, sense the enormous heat radiating from the flowing steel just 3 m beneath me, remember the concerns expressed by the representatives of the Wirtschaftsministerium, and have anunderstanding for the incredibale amount of work each industrialized city is burdened with in order to keep its environment clean.

I also remember the evening hours when the participants got together in informal groups either to socialize, eat in quaint little Gasthäusern and drink the famous Düsseldorfer Alt Bier, or to take walks around Schloß Mickeln, exchanging views and ideas.

The above mentioned experience, coupled with the new international friendships that were formed resulted in an "Erlebnis" which has already proved beneficial to my teaching. Not only do I correspond and exchange materias with some newly found colleagues and business contacts in Düsseldorf, but I approach my Business German class now with a feeling of much more confidence, because I have seen it, I was there.

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Retraining through the Goethe Institute, Part II

(Evaluation of the results of a seminar offered by the Goethe-Institute for business language instructors.)

As we heard, the main objective of the seminar offered by the Goethe-Institute was active involvement of all participants. Participants were to interview representatives from business, government and political organizations and furnish reports about the information they had received. Two questions can be asked . First: Has this approach achieved the desired result, that is: Has it helped foreign language instructors to become better informed teachers of business language? Second: Is it a better approach than, for instance , offering two weeks of prepared lectures and field trips with subsequent discussions under the guidance of an expert in selected fields of German business?

The answer rests on an assessment of the current status of the teaching of business languages and the qualification of business language instructors. As yet, there are no clearly defined goals for either the contents of business language classes or the background and training of instructors of business language. If there were, one could quite successfully arrange a seminar with a predetermined schedule and expert speakers because one could expect a homogeneous group of participants who bring the same set of expectations to a seminar. However, with business language still a relatively new field of teaching, it seems that a seminar that provides the opportunity to the participants to pursue their own interest at their own level of expertise is much preferable to a rigid schedule of topics, lectures and events that may be boring for one person or too demanding or too easy for others.

The structure of this seminar allowed each participant to either implement his own areas of interest and expertise according to his own plans, or investigate areas that were new and interesting to him. For many of us, as for me, the seminar offered both possibilities. Since I teach at an institution where a large number of graduates find careers in international banking and finance, banking topics and banking terms have always been treated extensively in our business language classes. Therefore, I joined the group that worked on the topic 'Banking and the Stock Market', in order to receive additional information and teaching materials. But also, in the course of visits, fields trips and interviews that were attended by the whole group I became more and more interested in environmental concerns, especially as they relate to business; this was a rather new area for me which I had never formally included in my teaching topics except in a very general way.

In order to limit the topic 'Banking and the Stock Market' to manageable proportions and allow for special interests of the group members, it was reduced to ' The Power of the German Banking Industry.' Since it was likely that the representatives of the large German commercial banks would not say anything that one could not also find in annual reports or other bank-generated material, the group decided to include other interview sources besides those prepared by the moderators of the seminar. Thus we included an American brokerage firm , a Japanese bank subsidiary and a private German bank that had just been bought by a British bank. It was quite surprising that these interviews could be arranged at short notice; mentioning the name of the Goethe-Institute as the organization sponsoring our seminar seemed to open doors. The interviews were interesting to us and resulted in many detailed pieces of information that our group discussed and evaluated after the interviews.

The result for me from this segment of the seminar was a variety of new information and a large collection of brochures and other authentic materials that I can use in teaching and would not be able to find in any textbook.

The other benefit derived from the seminar was the creation of awareness for topics and facts that were new for the language instructor. As I mentioned, in my case these were facts concerning environmental issues. Although I had been aware of the general nature of the problem, --dying forests, poisoned rivers, polluted air and soil, dangerous waste products-- I had not realized to what extent damage to the environment and the costs of preventing or repairing the damage determine the course of business and dominate the public debate. In many excursions and interviews, environmental questions were a focal point, such as during a visit to Krupp, or in interviews at the Chamber of

Commerce in Düsseldorf or in the presentation by the administrator in charge of environmental protection for the city of Düsseldorf, or during question and answer periods with representatives from political parties. With great interest I also listened to the report of the seminar group that worked on environmental problems. The participants of this group interviewed representatives from various industries. The transcripts of the interviews showed the highly ambiguous attitude of German industry toward environmental protection. I learned how much environmental legislation had been passed and what a large bureaucracy at all levels of government had been created to solve environmental problems. I also learned how little effect the legislation and the bureaucratic efforts have had as yet.

As I became more interested in the issues, I collected more materials for my own use and for teaching purposes, mainly from the Federal Environmental Agency which is located in Berlin. I realized that 'environmental protection' lends itself very well as topic for a rather extensive teaching unit because it touches on many cultural, economic, political and business aspects. There is a great amount of books and brochures about environmental issues and the number of articles in business journals and newspapers that are related to environmental concerns is overwhelming. As a handout for those of you for which the topic may also be of interest, I have prepared an outline of environmental topics and concerns, a bibliography, a list of useful addresses from which to request free materials, a short collection of newspaper and magazine articles and a translation of terms.

I hope that the description of my experiences with the retraining efforts of the Goethe-Institute have given you some insight into the scope of the program and its value for business language instructors.

Business German, Middlebury College, Vermont, and Europe:
A Case History - and a Model?

Constance N. Kenna

Middlebury College

June 1988

In the course of this report I will describe the steps that I, as a teacher of German language, culture, and literature at a small liberal arts college in northern New England, have taken in the past five years to train myself to teach business German courses and to broaden my knowledge of macro- and microeconomics and increase my familiarity with the German-speaking business world. I hope that this case history might serve as a model for other language educators who like me have had little prior experience in business and economics, and who already teach courses in business language or are considering adding such courses to their foreign language curriculum.

Business German courses were first offered at Middlebury College in the context of the graduate summer language program. In the early eighties, Klaus Evard from the European Business School in Oestrich-Winkel, Horst Schumacher of the University of Paris-Nanterre, and Günther Teschauer of the Tenafly (NJ) Public Schools all taught upper-level business and economic German at Middlebury before me. I gave myself and Middlebury undergraduates a modest introduction to the subject matter in the fall of 1982 when in teaching a course called "German in its Cultural Contexts" I included a three-week unit on the West German economy and its banking system. (Other units dealt with the educational system, the political system, and the social structure of the Federal Republic of Germany.) The experience was so positive that I decided to request permission from the Middlebury College Economics Department to audit EC 150 and EC 151 in the spring of 1983. Permission granted, I attended all classes for the courses on macro- and microeconomics, did all the readings, and took all the chapter

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quizzes (although because of other commitments I did not take mid-term or final examinations). Half-way through the semester, besides reading the texts and the professors' handouts, I found myself spending a lot of time in the college library reading U.S. business publications such as The Wall Street Journal, Business Week, Fortune, and Forbes and finding numerous articles on the West German economy. Soon I made two decisions: 1) to offer GN 321 Business German and German Business the following fall semester and 2) to spend six weeks in West Germany in May and June of 1983 (preceding the fall semester) devoting myself exclusively to becoming conversant in German on business and economic matters.

While in West Germany that spring, I read whatever materials I could find that dealt in German with business and the economy. I invested in reference books on business and economic terms and became familiar with the business pages of leading German newspapers.

Before flying to West Germany, I had collected from various friends and acquaintances the names and addresses of their friends and relatives in West Germany who had a connection to the West German business scene. Once in West Germany, I made a point of looking these people up. Thus, I called upon and often had lengthy conversations with individuals active in various segments of the West German economy. I talked, for instance, with a couple who run an office supplies and equipment firm - both retail and wholesale -, with a man who with his two sons has a rolled steel company, with a theater impresario, with a patent attorney, and with a stockbroker from the BHF Bank in Frankfurt.

In addition, I found myself conversing with my own German friends of long standing about their bank accounts, their mortgages, their taxes, and their retirement programs, topics that never before had interested me. Much to my pleasure, I discovered that not only was nearly everyone willing to talk with me about such matters, sometimes divulging information I'm quite sure they normally wouldn't share with their own compatriots, but also all of our discussions very nicely complemented my own reading in Das Handelsblatt, Wirtschaftswoche, Das Capital, and Manager-Magazin. Assiduously, I made copious vocabulary lists for myself and kept a notebook on new concepts I was learning. All this turned out to be my own hands-on experiences, my own on-the-job training, so to speak. I also arranged to audit classes for three days each at both Klaus Evard's European Business School and at the Cologne headquarters of the Carl Duisberg-Centren. My observations at these two organizations helped me to confirm in my own mind that I was making progress and that the approach I was taking was the right one for me.

Thus armed with new knowledge, I began teaching Business German to Middlebury College undergraduates in the fall of 1983. This spring (1988) marks the fourth time (three times during the academic year and once in the summer program) that I've taught the course. I've had as few as 7 and as many as 16 students. The course is constantly evolving. One reason I always enjoy teaching it is that it offers me a renewed opportunity to indulge in a now favorite activity, namely reading both U.S. and German newspapers and business publications. That way, I am also constantly up-dating my materials and, of course, broadening my own knowledge.

Another extremely productive source of information has been a number of guest speakers (both English speakers and German speakers), whom I've invited to come to give talks to my students. I began in the fall of 1983 by telephoning the Vermont State Agency of Development in Montpelier, our state capital, in search of German firms with subsidiaries in the state. I was lucky enough to get in touch with Louis Dvorzak, Director of Industrial Training, who accepted my invitation to come to Middlebury to describe the state's efforts to attract foreign firms to Vermont. Part of what he does is set up state-run industrial training programs to help Vermont workers meet the demands of actual or potential employers from outside the state, including West Germany, as it turns out. On his first visit, Lou brought along to illustrate his success Peter Heinz, the U.S. head of Karl Suess, a small high-tech German company, whose American subsidiary is located in Waterbury Center, Vermont. Thus began a long string of guest speakers, several of whom have returned each time I give the course. There is quite a bit of work in arranging the dates for the speakers, who often are very busy people and sometimes have to change their appointments, and, of course, the syllabus has to be adjusted and normal class activities have to be suspended when a speaker comes, but the benefits far outweigh any problems. My students are very enthusiastic to have contact with the "real world", as they put it. As for me, a real plus is that I always feel confirmed as a teacher of business German because very frequently, a guest speaker uses vocabulary we've been practicing or emphasizes points already made by me or in our readings. Hence, our "Theorie" is put into "Praxis".

Another useful practice I've instituted is to have Middlebury College alumni German majors return to the campus and speak to the class. The advantages here are that the students can really relate to the alumni, who in the case of my guests have been out of college only 8 to 12 years. The alumni are delighted to be "used" by the

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college in this way and have enthusiastically described their experiences working for Deutsche Bank in New York, Kuehne & Nagel in Hamburg, Wella AG in Darmstadt, the Westdeutsche Landesbank in Düsseldorf, the Bayerische Vereinsbank in Chicago, Opel in Rüsselsheim, or General Foods in Frankfurt.

In December 1987, by chance, I discovered that at the same time I was planning a short pre-Christmas trip to Germany some American friends of mine, who own a small, but very successful furniture-manufacturing company in Brandon, Vermont, were also planning to be there. They were combining business with pleasure, and besides attending a wedding, they had made arrangements to visit two companies in Baden-Württemberg - one a small manufacturer of computerized wood-processing machines and the other a manufacturer/supplier of furniture accessories (hinges, clasps, latches, etc.). My friends invited me to accompany them on their tours of these companies, and I had an absolutely fascinating time becoming acquainted with facilities and products from the inside out, and in addition, I enjoyed speaking German with the German hosts, who, even though their English was quite serviceable in making their sales pitch to my companions, were pleased to speak business German with me.

Last winter and spring (1987), fueled by this unplanned, but very positive experience, and coincidentally having been freed of my administrative and secretarial duties vis-à-vis the German School and the German Department, and in possession of my first full-time teaching appointment along with the assurance from the college provost that I was indeed now eligible to apply for a paid leave of absence, I sat down at my Macintosh, also newly acquired, and began brainstorming with myself about leave possibilities. Working with

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contacts in Vermont companies I'd already established, studying publications of the Vermont State Chamber of Commerce, reading regularly the Vermont Business Monthly, and making frequent use of my office telephone, I embarked on a project to pay visits to a number of Vermont firms with business connections in Europe, primarily West Germany, but also Austria, and Holland. In March and April 1987, I spent one or two days each week on the road traveling to various parts of the state. Vermont is actually a very small state--200 miles from north to south and no more 150 miles from east to west--, nevertheless, I sometimes had to travel up to three hours to reach a specific company. I even traveled once to New Hampshire and another time to Connecticut to call upon a company. But it was well worth it. I really enjoyed getting to know Vermont (and New England) in this very different way, and through my on-site visits I discovered a great variety of products and much business contact with Europe. Most of the companies were willing to put me in touch with their European counterparts. I made it very clear to the individuals I met in the various companies that my goals involved achieving opportunities for myself and my students to become more knowledgeable about business German and German business. I found a great deal of support and enthusiasm for my cause. Very concretely, I requested names, addresses, and telephone numbers and asked the Americans to make the initial contact for me with their European business partners. Then I followed up, usually first by telephone and afterward by letter.

By the time May and June 1987 came and I was ready to fly to Europe, exactly four years had passed since my first total immersion experience in business German; prior to leaving, I had arranged appointments at nine different European firms. I felt very informed about each of the companies I was to visit because in most cases I'd

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toured the facilities in Vermont (or New Hampshire or Connecticut), examined their products, and had talked with company employees on this side of the Atlantic. Once in Europe, I followed a rigorous schedule and visited the Van Houton Chocolate Company in Holland just across the border from Aachen, now a subsidiary of Jacob-Suchard in Switzerland (Van Houton in the U.S. has a plant in St. Albans, Vermont, that I had already visited); Niggermann, a food wholesaler and food services equipment company in Bochum, a distributor for Blodgett Ovens in Burlington, Vermont, and Pizer Fryers in Concord, New Hampshire; the Austrian manufacturing facility of Burton Snowboards of Manchester Center, Vermont, as well as Burton's West German distributor, Frovein GmbH in Albstadt (Baden-Württemberg); two clothing manufacturers (Bogner in Munich and Geiger in Schwaz, Austria), both of which have sizeable plants in Vermont; a small high-tech company in Garching outside Munich, the parent of Karl Suess of Waterbury Center, Vermont; Trumpf in Ditzingen outside Stuttgart, a manufacturer of sophisticated computer and laser-driven metal-processing machines, the parent company of Trumpf of America in Farmington, Connecticut; and through Berthold Leibinger, the Trumpf CEO who is also the current president of the Stuttgart Chamber of Industry and Commerce (Industrie- und Handelskammer Mittlerer Neckar), I also spent a day becoming acquainted with the workings of the largest regional West German chamber of commerce; and last, but not least, Daimler-Benz AG in Sindelfingen and Untertürkheim also near Stuttgart. This last visit was arranged through a personal contact I'd long had, but had never actively pursued: the brother of a long-time German friend of mine is treasurer of Daimler-Benz.

In the course of my visits, wherever and whenever it seemed appropriate, I broached the subject of doing an internship with the hand-on-experience and on-the-job training next year in Europe.

I'd like to conclude this report by observing that--as I see it--there are four primary reasons why I've had considerable success in pursuing my interests in business German and German business: 1) I'm an American with very good, albeit not perfect skills in German; 2) I'm a middle-aged woman who surprisingly is interested in and knowledgeable about the German economy and business scene; 3) I have an Anglo-Saxon name; 4) I strike a chord of positive response among my German business conversation partners who in working with me like to see themselves not only furthering their own interests in international trade but also at the same time promoting the dual causes of young people and international understanding.

company sometime during the 1988-89 academic year. I proposed spending six to eight weeks in the company moving from department to department to become familiar with the work done in each and with the language used in carrying out the tasks involved I received a warm response, and now, having written everything up and submitted it to the Middlebury College Teaching Resources Committee as a leave proposal, which subsequently was approved, I am looking forward to doing four internships, beginning in late August: two in Munich and two in Stuttgart. In Munich I will intern at Karl Suess and at Bogner, in Stuttgart at Trumpf and at the Stuttgart Chamber of Industry and Commerce.

Besides expanding my own scope with regard to the West German economy and business scene, I have two further projects as I look ahead to the coming academic year as well as the year following, when I will be director of studies for the Middlebury program in Mainz. First, I am working with the Middlebury College Alumni Office and with our Director of Career Counseling and Placement to establish internships (of longer duration) and externships (of shorter duration) for Middlebury undergraduates at various European firms. This program, we hope, will begin in January 1991 in our one-month Winter Term. I am also preparing to teach a senior-level seminar focusing on the German economy and German business, which I propose to offer for the first time in the fall of 1991 upon my return to the classroom.

As I look back over the past five years, I am pleased to realize how much my knowledge of business German and German business has increased. I've really enjoyed devising my own approach to learning this new field, and I look forward to even greater

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INTERNSHIP OPPORTUNITY FOR STUDENTS OF BUSINESS GERMAN

by

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INTERNSHIP OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENTS OF GERMAN

presented

at the Seventh Annual EMU Conference on
Languages and Communication for
World Business and the Professions

by
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As you know, the picture in foreign language instruction has brightened somewhat in recent years. This has been due in part to expressions of official support. I'm thinking, for instance, of Paul Simon's bill or President Reagan's exhorting the nation (during foreign language week recently) to study more languages. Once again, many instituations are making foreign language study mandatory for graduation. Another factor in the turnaround - more important than official support, I think - has been the proliferation of courses in the field of foreign language for business, ranging from entire programs to single course offerings. Nationwide, the realization has taken hold that orienting foreign language courses to students aspiring to international business or service careers, rather than only to those relatively few students whose interests are mainly cultural or literary, is not only a responsible and fruitful way of spending tax dollars, but also greatly increases student enrollment. We need only observe the growth of this conference over the years since its inception to realize the magnitude of this change.

Naturally, as more and more institutions conform to this trend, those institutions which were among the first to offer language-for-business programs are losing their competitive advantage in attracting students. Thus, the question arises of how a given institution, or, for that matter, a given language section within a department, can compete more effectively for students, i.e., once again gain a competitive edge? It is my conviction and has been been our experience in the German section at Thunderbird, that enabling the student to cap his foreign language studies with an internship in the target-language country, in our case West Germany, is one of the most useful and effective ways to attract him or her to the study of German. In the academic year following the insertion into our catalogue of information on our German exchange program and internship, enrollment in German increased 50% at Thunderbird.

About three years ago Thunderbird entered into a student exchange program with the European Business School near Wiesbaden, where our German students can elect to study for one semester, providing they have met certain language and other prerequisite requirements. An internship of usually three months' duration with a German multinational corporation is automatically attached to that semester. We at Thunderbird would strongly urge our colleagues at other institutions to seek out foreign exchange programs that provide relevant work experience to their students, or to do everything possible to add that dimension to their existing foreign language programs. In the case of the customary partner institution, namely, a traditional German university such as Heidelberg or Freiburg, this may be difficult to do, however, other than through personal involvement of the stateside language professor, such as making personal contacts and arrangements with German firms on behalf of the students. The European Business School is, to my knowledge, the only private business school with academic university accreditation in the FRG, and therefore, similar arrangements providing automatic business internships may be hard to come by. I want to focus the major part of my remarks, therefore, on how you, as individual German language instructors, can help individual students to secure junior management-level internships with German firms.

I mentioned that owing to our exchange program and internship in Germany, enrollment in German has recently increased by 50%, but we have found that because of course scheduling conflicts and other priorities such as permanent job offers, etc., only about 15% of our German students find that they can take advantage of this opportunity after all their other requirements have been prioritized. We, and I in particular, have therefore become quite involved in counselling individual students and supervising their efforts to secure German internships privately. As part of

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the development and education of a future international manager, this approach may even be more beneficial than simply taking advantage of a ready-made program, since it forces the student to take the initiative, develops his entrepreneurial spirit, and, quite practically, represents a dry-run of his eventual quest for a permanent job.

So, how do we go about helping our students to apply for German internships? I have brought along some handouts for you on every phase of the process from government regulations to strategies for the personal interview, all of which will also be useful to the student applying for a permanent job with a German firm. But let me deal briefly with each necessary step.

The first thing to be considered are European Community and German Federal and local laws and regulations affecting Americans who seek employment in the Federal Republic. I am happy to report, and some of you may already be aware of the fact, that the restrictions and bureaucratic obligations for temporary workers, such as interns, are minimal. The federal law applicable in the case of an intern would be that a U.S. passport holder staying longer than 3 months with gainful employment, but not intending to immigrate, does not need a visa prior to entering the Federal Republic. Upon arrival, however, he does need a residence and/or work permit which must be applied for at the local immigration office (Auslanderbehorde) must be applied for immediately.

Details of how to go about this and photocopies of the necessary documents are are included in the handouts. Further, all persons living in Germany must report their address to the registration office (Einwohnermeldeamt). A health examination is also mandatory. Students and interns seeking short-term (up to three months) employment do not need a work permit under EEC laws for non-citizens of European member states. The student should apply at least 3 months ahead of the time he wishes to begin his internship.

How will you and your student know what firms to apply to? You or your department should subscribe to Handelsblatt or Wirtshaftswoche, both of which have identical career-counselling inserts ("Karriere"). These supplements are not only a source for finding internship opportunities, but they also feature very good articles on job-seeking skills and job market conditions in West Germany. Other helpful sources specifically intended for university graduates embarking on business careers, and containing many internship and other job offers and information, are the periodicals Der Akedemiker, Forum, and Innovatio. These appear twice or three times a year and can be subscribed to at minimal cost; all necessary information is in your handout packets. I have also added a list of German firms that have in the recent past given internships to Thunderbird graduates. Naturally, every time you go back to Germany for a visit, you should make every effort to establish personal contacts with German firms, in order to add to your list of possible employers. This is relatively easy to do, because German firms are very public-relations conscious. You need only say, for example, that you are a U.S. language professor who is researching the response of German firms to environmental pollution problems for your lectures in the U.S., and you will usually get a tour, be treated to lunch, and come away with about 5 lbs. of expensive P.R. material which, by the way, will prove very useful as teaching materials in your business language classes.

In general, perhaps owing to the centuries-old tradition of internship in the apprentice-journeyman-master sequence of education in the trades, and also because of public and government pressures, German firms are very open to interns from within and without the FRG. They know it is expected of them to give young people a leg up on the career ladder. German firms that seem especially interested in American interns at this time are Braun, a Gillette subsidiary, which offers 6-month internships and will then permanently employ suitable candidates in their U.S. operations. Siemens, too, is always looking for promising young Americans, and so is Nixdorf, the German computer manufacturer, because usually Americans are already thoroughly familiar with computers and seem to have a natural affinity for them, according to a Nixdorf manager I talked to. If your student is more interested in Austria or Switzerland, you should write for information on how to get internships in those countries to their U.S. chambers of commerce, but the conditions, rules, etc., are bound to be very similar.

Armed with a list of firm names, the student should write to as many of them as possible, sending a curriculum vitae both in English and German with an accompanying letter also in both languages. I have included the latest format samples for both, as well as rules and hints on how to apply, accept or reject offers, interview strategies, etc.

I have brought along also a typical contract sent to one of my students by Lever Sutter GmbH, to give you an idea of hours, pay, vacation, etc., of a typical internship. This particular one is for six months, June through November, stipulates a 40-hour work week, 15 days of paid vacation within the six-month period, and a gross salary of DM 900.- per month, enough to survive on. The contract has several pages of clauses on secrecy and privacy, the so-called data-protection law, (Datenschutzgesetz).

As in the case of Braun, promising young American interns can often parley these internships into permanent positions, and we need not hesitate to hold out this possibility to our students. I know, we have all been cautioned about the twin spectres of high unemployment in the FRG (12-13%) and the EEC employment laws which force companies to give preferential consideration to applicants from member countries. Let me say that during my recent 6-week stay in West Germany, I was informed again and again by company executives and university professors alike, that the unemployed are almost exclusively unskilled workers and Gastarbeiter (foreign "guest workers"), but that management positions go begging. At the European Business School, each of the most recent group of graduates had an average 2.6 permanent job offers; that's offers, not interviews!

As regards the Common Market employment laws, here again I was informed there is a dearth of suitable applicants (which corroborates what I just said about the selective unemployment situation), and nowadays an interested firm simply fills out a standard form, an affidavit stating that they have done the requisite applicant search within the member countries, but have not found anyone as well qualified as the non-member citizen applicant.

If employment with a German firm in Germany proves unattainable, there are still excellent possibilities of working for a U.S. subsidiary in the FRG, Austria or Switzerland, or for a German subsidiary in the U.S., such as in the case of Braun. There are now more than 2,000 subsidiaries of major German firms in the U.S., and their number is growing almost daily. By the way, the directory of these firms can be ordered from the German/American Chamber of Commerce in New York for about $25.00.

In whatever situation the successful intern find himself after he has completed his program, the internship will have helped make him more employable in a position of responsibility and challenge (and better pay) than he would have been without it. Further, we, the instructors, will feel good, because we have helped our student set his foot on the first rung of the ladder of success, while proving that studying German grammar can indeed lead to better things. And finally, students, realizing the benefits of a foreign-language internship, will flock to your business German courses in droves.

I hope that I have provided you with some helpful hints and ideas on how to help find internships for your students. Time limits did not permit more detailed remarks, but I will be only too happy to answer questions after the session or help you with additional material if I can.

Thank you very much for your kind attention.

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BUSINESS GERMAN: LEARNING BY PLAYING THE MARKET

by

Mr. Joseph Hickey
Dortmund, West Germany

BUSINESS GERMAN: LEARNING BY PLAYING THE MARKET

The West German stock market as a collection of stock markets offers appropriate material for learners of business German, especially, of course, for future investment specialists. Perhaps a salient feature of this market, or these markets, compared, i.e. to any post Big Bang or multi-instrumental, innovative or razzle-dazzle(take your pick!) Anglosaxon stock market, is its highly regulated and narrowly defined function and structure. This latter combination does often pop up in the West German financial press as something to be praised, when the going gets tough, or something to be urgently changed, when the indices in the major, i.e. New York, London and Tokyo, markets are inexorably going up. As a reflection of this thinking, we find in the Handelsblatt from 25 November 1987 the following comment:

> ,,Konkret zeigte sich...in den letzten Wochen, dass die hierzulande nach internationalem Vorbild geplante Options- und Futuresbörse und auch die sogenannte Market-Maker-Börse wohl eher trendverstärkende Auswirkungen zeigten...Nunmehr käme es darauf an, diese Innovationen genau zu überprüfen. Angesichts unterschiedlich gewachsener Investmentkulturen könnten sich Weiterentwicklungen des ,,klassischen" Terminmarkts für den deutschen Kapitalmarkt als geeigneter erweisen." (Terminbörsenpläne 36)

A clearly defined governing board has the job of regulating and managing the day-to-day functioning of the market, which, by the way, we will now understand to be the largest and most internationally sensitive of the West German markets, *die Frankfurter Börse*. By sensitive I mean not only the stock market with the most foreign stocks being traded on the main floor, but the one with the largest number of transactions per day, especially those initiated by large foreign investors. The other bodies that exist to regulate the West German stock market are: the office responsible for the official listing of companies(*Zulassungsstelle*), an arbitral body(*Schiedsgericht*) and a chamber of official market makers(*Kursmaklerkammer*). (Frankfurter Wertpapierbörse, Geschichte 6-13)

I hope here that it has become clear, not only from the above-mentioned characteristics of the West German bourse, but also from the problems of translating the German terms just used, that this material is well-suited as learning material for a series of lessons in business German, even if, or especially if, within an accompanying well-defined reception and active use of the target language, one has to today emphasize language acquisition.

This 'acquisition' would have to begin with the students having a command of German at the intermediate college level. Command is to be understood in its more practical sense of all the basic structures, including,most importantly, all the tenses, and functions(asking for information, making requests, offering something, accepting something, describing and reporting a situation, and, as more advanced, making complaints, responding to complaints and giving advice) having been seen or touched on. Specific 'gambits' needed for appropriate advising or for complaining and, most especially for responding, either in writing or orally, to complaints, could play a role in this series. They could be used either as supplementary material or as part of a follow-up series of lessons or even in the next course. However, to take our students from the basic supply and demand concepts and vocabulary up to the center of the floor of the Frankfurt stock exchange, using, of necessity, German along the way, does not demand a wide range of sociolinguistic niceties to correspond to the dealing at hand. In fact, for our English speakers the emphasis in this series on content and the world of trading and dealing in West Germany and not on the sociolinguistic/ paralinguistic oiling of a communicative process, such as might be found in in-house training programs, can only be positively reinforced by a feature of the target language that may appear reductive to English speakers. To take only an example from the area of business correspondence: educated English speakers often feel the need to begin a letter to an official agency in West Germany with a personal address, even if it only corresponds to Dear Sirs/ Gentlemen, and then, certainly when requesting something, to end with an acknowledgement of thanks.

The instructional unit can perhaps be summarized as follows:

1. feel for basic terms and concepts
2. introduction to newspaper listings/column headings
3. more terms and concepts
4. roles of participants on the trading floor
5. role play(cf. lesson 4)
6. analyzing/summarizing reports on trading
7. role play(investment counseling)--optional lesson
8. simulation of a typical trading day
9. discussion of trading day simulated in lesson 8.

Supply and demand is at the basis of the economic system we are in. They are also the basic words and concepts our students need to progress more and more into the target-language world for business, or specifically, investment purposes. In the first lesson the students should get a feel for the German words Angebot and Nachfrage. These will be used to define the lexical items needed for the specific purposes in our series. The teacher begins by giving the words for company, stock/share, price and quotation, setting a price and market maker. Buy and sell will be considered known.

Each student has to write at the top of a piece of paper the name of a fictitious but large, perhaps international, company. It may be a West German or U.S.-American one, e.g. Universal Microworld Co. or Deutsche Chemiewerke AG. The activity then follows the general form of the consequences learning game. The next person writes on the next line a price for one share in this company, as the company and its market value is udnerstood by the student. The price must be in DM, the exchange rate having been given to the students by the teacher. The next person to get the paper must write down the number of shares to be bought and at what price. it goes on to the next student who writes down the number of stocks to be sold and at what price. The last person to get the paper has the job of tallying up the buy and sell bids and setting a price. The teacher, of course, has already shown how this is to be done. A worthwhile variation may be to have one set of buy and one set of sell bids on one paper, making the job of the West German market maker/specialist(Kursmakler) more clear. The teacher then explains what happened using the vocabulary introduced. Each student then has to explain what the stock's price(corresponding,as will later be seen, to the single quotation price or Einheitskurs) is for that 'trading' session.

If the linguistic competence is not up to it, the student can simply blurt out, comparable to the ritual on the market floor itself,

,,Die xy AG. Kurs ist DM----."

Teacher would then introduce Kaufauftrag/Kauforder, Verkaufsauftrag/Verkaufsorder and (Einheits)Kurs festlegen/festsetzen in the form of a paraphrasing summing-up. This model should lead to the students being in a position to functionally report on trading activities in these terms:

,,Für die xy AG gab es ... Kaufaufträge zu DM----
und ... Verkaufsaufträge zu DM----.
Der amtlich(e)(festgelegte) Einheitskurs ist
DM----."

For the latter one could have the variant

,,...ist mit DM---- festgesetzt worden."

Perhaps one could even add the important

,,Alle Aufträge konnten ausgeführt werden."

As can be seen, the use of Order as a specialist term in German may give some assurance to our English-speaking hopefuls. The problem with the plural form of Order can also be shown. (Limit will come later.) But what really has been intended in this first lesson is for students to get a first-hand feel, through immersion or this initial dip, for the mechanisms in force in buying and selling stocks in German on the West German markets and for the role of Angebot and Nachfrage. The students may, too, be initially sensitized for a deeper understanding of specific differences, to be noted later, between the U.S. system and West German trading in shares: the role of the Kursmakler, for example, or the fact that the average German share price is generally higher than the average U.S. share price.

In the second lesson we need one of the West German regional or national financial newspapers and copies for the students of its stock market quotations. I feel it is best if the date of this issue of the newspaper corresponds to the beginning of a one or two month inverval in the past.

Our lessons will orient themselves to the listings in that time period.

On coming into the lesson each student is given DM 50,000 in play money and is told to look at the listings from the newspaper and to find a company they recognize. Fortunately, the myriad of company abbreviations found in computerized order in U.S. newspaper listings have not yet cluttered West German newspaper listings. In line with KISS(Kurs-Informations-Service-System) it is bound to happen though. (Frankfurter Wertpapierbörse, Feststellung)

Fortunately, too, the fact that U.S. students and others have been enamored of modern West German products in recent years may make quick recognition possible.

The students are, then, in turn, to write down on a card the name of the company as listed in the paper and the price for the previous day. The teacher here has to be very active in his role as resource person/information retrieval system/counselor since many questions can arise for the unitiated student. There can be good chances to explain the various column headings, such as: fortlaufende Notierungen, Kassakurse, Freiverkehr, unnotierte Werte, Auslandsaktien amtlich, geregelter Markt(as of May 1987) etc. etc. By the way, the word Notierung for quotation has already been introduced in the lesson, I am sure. All the codes and symbols relative to the listings become the substance of the next lesson. For now the only task highlighting this lesson is for the student to put the card with the information requested, i.e. the name of the company and the number of shares to be bought (or sold?), and the correct amount of money into a sealed box that the teacher brings around. This box is to be opened at the end of the series of lessons, the teacher being the keeper of the keys. As a final point: some students may have noted that there are quotations for various cities. The more ambitious of the pre-crash believers may even spot some perfect arbitrage setups. This may come about either because of the various letter codes used next to a listing or because of the city headings for columns of quotations found in certain newspapers. Probably, too, the price quoted for a West German stock, when translated into dollars, may seem high to our U.S. students, reflecting as it does a different type of market and market participation,among other things. One wonders how they would react to Swiss quotations.

The teacher may perhaps use this lesson to give general information on the makeup of a West German company. Graphical means as found in specific brochures, e.g. page 9 in _Alles Über Aktien_, can make the relationship between _Hauptversammlung_, _Aufsichtsrat_ and _Vorstand_ very clear. These words will later be taken over into the functioning of our series' trading. The branches of industry that are important as categories for our stock market listings in, for example, the _Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung_, can also be introduced with graphical means, taken from page 4 in the same brochure. For advanced

advanced students an article in the *Handelsblatt* from December 5/6, 1986,in which the chief executive or co-speaker(*Vorstandssprecher*) of the *Deutsche Bank*, Herr Christians, is quoted on the danger of foreign investors not being physically present at the shareholders yearly meeting leading to an undermining of participatory democracy in West German companies can be interesting. ("*Gesetz*") In the same article we not only find mention of the large number of foreign investors in 1985 and 1986 but also a comment on the negligible or zero role of '*Insider-Geschäfte*' (as defined) in the West German stock markets; a comment of another *Vorstandssprecher* reported in this article, whereby the negative effects of a '*rot-grün*' coalition on West Germany's economic development would also make for a good discussion. Interesting is also why such an article appeared at this time as a report, not only in the paper quoted here, and what foreign investors one may have had specifically in mind. On the same page, we have, in fact, a perhaps even more interesting topic: "*Globalisierung der Finanzmärkte*".

This previous lesson then has made it clear to the students that there are a lot of terms they have to come to terms with before they can get more involved in 'playing the West German stock market'. The present lesson is to get them used to working with the appropriate resource books for the sake of information retrieval within the cultural-economic tradition(s) of (West) Germany. It is mainly a matter of terms relating directly and specifically to the West German stock market(s). The reference works, or fact-retrieval systems(especially if micros are available in the college classroom) if you like, can be divided into three types. One type has got stock market terminology

(Frankfurter Wertpapierbörse, Börsenausdrücke) and the other type words and concepts from the world of investment and finance(Das kleine Wertpapier ABC or Die Wirtschaft heute). Other materials that are in the target language and relate directly to the West German system are dictionaries or brochures published by the information offices of the West German stock markets. The third type of resource material would be the--as I feel--rather useful International Dictionary of the Securities Industry(London) compiled by Stuart Valentine. The International Dictionary, even though the L_1 is used, is a clear aid to initiating concept building relative to the German terms. Specific differences in the objective forms referred to in the West German, London and New York markets become clear.

As I said, it is a matter of the West German market(s). The teacher gives the go-word 'Börse' and our students, at best in pairs, are off and searching. Using the above-mentioned reference materials they will not have a chance to take a breath until about 15 minutes into the lesson. The specific structure and functioning of the West German stock market and the roles of its participants are to be paraphrased and/or redefined in German appropriate to the students' linguistic competence. After the students' 'definitions' are corrected, factually and linguistically, within the group or by the teacher helping each pair individually, they are shown how to begin a crossword-style guessing game, asking each other in the larger group:

,,Was ist ...?"

,,Wie heisst...?"

,,Was macht...?"

,,Was für eine Funktion hat ...?"

At his or her discretion the teacher can steer either the pairs or the group as a whole onto various terms and concepts. Words like *Börsenaufsicht*, used in connection with the activity of the *Börsenvorstand,* can be examined here in the light of *Aufsichtsrat* and *Vorstand* from the previous lesson. We assume in this lesson that the students are able to define, using the appropriate verbs and defining clauses and (post-)modifiers. The teacher comes into the game only now and then to ask one of the above questions. But the teacher's final question should be the motivating lead for the next lesson:

„Was ist ein Börsenmakler?"

An answer here will make it clear to the students that, linguistically and conceptually, more must be done to communicate in the specific German to be learnt in this series than was required in the first lesson where *Kursmakler* was introduced as the word for a simply defined, undifferentiated role in the supply and demand game. *Makler* and *Kursmakler*, *Vertreter der Banken* and *Händler* are all words that will inform the next lesson. They must become transparent for our students, familiar as they may be with another trading system.

We now come to the serious business of trading on the floor of the West German market. *Aktiensaal* or *Parkett* is introduced by the teacher showing a picture of the floor of a West German stock market on a trading day to the learning group in order to initiate the task. Such a photo can be found, among other places, in *Alles über Aktien* or in brochures from the Information Service of the *Frankfurter Wertpapierbörse*. The students can be told that they now must work together in small groups to describe functions the people in the picture are fulfilling on both sides of the wooden counter(Maklerschranke) enclosing an area with computers. Our U.S. business students, especially if they are interested in investment, have their already well-established English concepts working at full speed. The job is, however, for each sub-group to describe in German the functional role of these stock market participants. Whether the students have been able to adequately describe the roles of the people in the picture depends on how well they have been able to use the resource materials, either the works mentioned or the teacher. For example, what look like cubicles in the back of the typical trading floor picture may at first confuse our students. If skimming the brochures is too much for a specific learning group, the teacher can give the appropriate 'key word' here: Vertreter der Banken. Each sub-group then reads out in the German at its disposal(kaufen, verkaufen, handeln, anrufen/angerufen werden etc.) the descriptions made. These descriptions are corrected and elaborated on by the group members, the teacher taking as little part as is necessary. Hopefully, the students will now know the exact nature of the roles of participants in trading on the floor of a West German stock market.

The roles of banks in the West German financial and investment world can be highlighted in this lesson. A West German bank offers universal banking, as an article on West Germany in The Economist(26 March-1 April 1983) emphasized, translating the German word Universalbank. A table from an information brochure from the Commerzbank (Rund um die Börse), with a run-down on companies listed on the stock exchange, can let the students see the role of banks as major shareholders and, in turn, members of the board of trustees(Aufsichtsrat) of companies, such as, Daimler, department stores and breweries; companies that have a certain appeal, to be sure. Then again the major banks are stock companies themselves. Not only is this interconnection of functions a topic for critical discussion in West Germany(as well as in the Economist article, I may add), but it could also direct more adventurous, liberal arts oriented students to research and discussion that could culminate in suggestions for the financial and political system these students are enmeshed in. One would venture to say that recent changes or suggested changes in the banking system in the U. S. have not come form out of nowhere. Finally, in the lesson before the students may have seen that the representatives of the banks make up the majority of members of the Börsenvorstand, in relation, among other things, of course, to the role of the Vertreter der Banken as brokers/dealers on the floor of the West German stock markets.

In the next lesson, the students, on the basis of Angebot and Nachfrage as they specifically apply to the West German stock exchange, are to play roles; role paly, I may emphasize, and not a simulation. We are now playing roles in the market, using the specifics acquired up to now.

Each student gets a card with a role written on it, either that of Kursmakler for a specific group of stocks or as Bankenvertreter(Effektenhändler). Again we have the quotations from a newspaper. I suggest that the newspaper should be dated somewhere in the middle of the one or two month period mentioned at the beginning of this paper. It now seems best to use the quotations from 3 or 4 major West German financial or general newspapers. The fact that each paper has a different way of presenting the prices helps or forces the students to work actively with authentic materials, using effectively and realistically what they have learnt up to now. A learning effect should, thus, be maximized. Suggested newspapers coudl be Handelsblatt, Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, Die Welt and Süddeutsche Zeitung.

The stocks to be used are those that have proven to be most interesting and attractive for the students during the lessons. The teacher has written the price for the stock and the number of shares to be bought or sold on cards. The teacher must make sure that the selling and buying bids correspond to the stock market activity for that day, as reported in the newspaper. Incidentally, the teacher and the students have two different sets of price information. The teacher's newspaper is the edition one day later than the students' newspapers. The teacher,in making up the cards, has taken into account whether the stocks were traded continuously or only on the basis of a single fixed quotation, whether demand was present or not and satisfied or not(G or B; cf. asked and bid prices), whether all transactions could take place or whether only estimated price is given, etc.

Each student playing the role of Bankenvertreter picks up such a card from the table(s) lining the sides of the room and goes to the appropriate Kursmakler. The cards also contain the one-word instruction for the offers to be made: either 'limitiert' or 'billigst' or 'bestens'('limit' or 'at best' instructions). The dialog can be kept simple;

more advanced students can even be indoctrinated into the real market floor whoops and hollers: '*an Sie...von Ihnen*' etc. There should be enough cards for activity covering 30% of the lesson. When the teacher, presaging perhaps the role as *Börsenaufsicht* in future lessons, calls stop, the *Bankenvertreter* and the *Kursmakler* have to write up a report on the deals they have handled that 'trading session'. If the students know about *Bankenprovisionen* and *Courtage* and play money is available, maybe they will have been kept scurrying like on the real stock exchange floor. The teacher is the final judge of the students' reports, deciding if deals completed were reported correctly, i.e. were really able to be completed based on the teacher's up-to-date news. Since the students will be orally reporting on something that they did, *Perfekt* will be mainly used here. The vocabulary for orders completed and turnover come into play. As an example, the *Kursmakler* says, (simplifying reality a bit)

> ,,50.000 Stück BMW sind umgesetzt worden.
> Der Schlusskurs war ...
> Meine Courtage ist ...
> Für xyz war keine Nachfrage vorhanden."

Or a *Bankenvertreter* reports, (simplifying again)

> ,,Alle Kaufaufträge für xyz sind ausgeführt worden.
> Das waren 2.000 Stück im Wert von DM ...
> Meine(Unsere) Provision ist ..."

The most recent edition of the brochure *Geschichte ...* from the Frankfurter Wertpapierbörse can give the current *Courtage* and *Provision* rate in percent of turnover. By the end of the lesson the letter codes and/or symbols found in stock market quotations, including the different price entries (comparable, for '_fortlaufende Notierungen_', to U.S. practice), as well as information on volume of trade should no longer be foreign to the students.

These students in the next lesson read the reports on the day's trading that always accompany the newspaper's listings. Of course, the students now have the newspaper edition dated a day later than the one they used the lesson before. The short journalistic anlayzing/summarizing reports on the previous day's trading can deepen the students' analyses from the previous lesson. Yet this is specific text work. For students with only a few semesters course work in German, it may be difficult. But as we all know, we can make the goals and the tasks or activities appropriate for guiding the students' acquisition of new material, suitable to the competence and needs of the individual student.

The use of _Präteritum_ predominates, in marked contrast to the use of _Perfekt_ in the lesson before. And the _Präteritum_ is found more in the active than in the passive voice form. Expressions depicting the mood of the stock market (Börsenklima) and the rises and falls in prices and the corresponding effects(Gewinnmitnahme/Verluste) are all there to be learnt and codified for later use by our students. What may strike the students is how _Perfekt_ pops up in the analytical summaries every now and then. It is most often used for influences that affect the market price from outside the trading activity on the floor--economic reports from the companies or from governments, political and social factors and events and measures.

As an example, we have from the _Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung_ from Saturday, 31 January 1987, p. 18:

,,Zum Wochenschluss war die Tendenz am deutschen

> Aktienmarkt freundlich. Die Kurserholung des Dollar...sowie die Einigung im Handelsstreit zwischen der EG und den Vereinigten Staaten haben sich im Aktien- und Rentenhandel positiv ausgewirkt. Am Aktienmarkt kam es vor allem bei Automobilwerten zu grösseren Kursgewinnen... Wie aus Handelskreisen zu hören war, hat die gebesserte Tendenz ausländische Anleger dazu bewogen, noch am Vortag aufgegebene Verkaufsaufträge ...wieder zurückzuziehen.
>
> ... Bei den Versicherungswerten waren Aachener und Münchner Versicherung ausgesetzt. Die Gesellschaft hat ihre Finanzierungspläne nach dem Erwerb der Bank für Gemeinwirtschaft bekanntgegeben."

Working with texts means, among other things, global understanding using headlines, reading for gist, finding predominant, invariant lexical/xyntactic combinations(à la Fleischer's Phraseologie), rewriting,accordingly, texts so as to serve another function, especially when it concerns technical texts, various teacher pre-constructed exercise sheets, detailed comprehension and comment. For us in this lesson it means seeing how the students' imperfect Perfekt reports on the day's trading are expressed in the corresponding newspaper report. It will be a matter of underlinging and comparing the usual lexical/syntactical combinations found. When all are written on the board or shown as a previously prepared transparency, two students who have used different newspapers should come together and write a summary/analysis on the previous day's trading, using the expressions they like best. They should report on the state of the market and the gains and losses, especially, as far as possible, on the stocks they themselves dealt with in the previous lesson or lessons.

In the specific text given here there are many points for discussion. The references to foreign investors and the dollar's exchange rate may strike our students. The sensitivity of West German stock market activity to foreign investors, i.e. large institutions, would become evident for the students after reading other, similar, reports. The role of U.S. pension funds in the West German bull market of 1986 received one-line and, thus, forceful asides in the German financial press in that year. An interesting side discussion could center around the provocative point, alluded to by a U.S. journalist(Fitzgerald 209), that this may be the first and last generation of pensioners with such funds available. Sociologists and political economists would have to step in here and give such a discussion direction and substance. Our substance is clear: foreign investors, what they can and can not do. Either their absence, as noted obliquely in a (portentous?) report from the Handelsblatt from 27 August 1987, p. 17, leads to the headline situation--,,...geht der Börse...die Puste aus"--, or it leads to large indigenous investors having a greater impact than usual on a West German market left floating by the foreigners, as seen in the rises in the week of 8-12 February 1988. The role of the dollar's exchange rate has certainly been good for further discussion in 1987 and 1988. What 'aussetzen' means and why it takes place can also be discussed. Information on this procedure can be found in the brochure from the Wertpapierbörse(Geschichte 7). Again it could be interesting for our students to compare this West German regulation with ones applicable to the U.S.

markets and day-to-day trading.

As for the use of *Perfekt* and *Präteritum* learners need help. Practical advice given to foreigners learning German and found in those U.S. basic and intermediate textbooks that are less U.S. structural than usual is: use *Perfekt* when talking about the past in conversation and *Präteritum* when reporting about or telling a story about the past in writing. This is a rule of thumb to help learners break away from the constraints of their native tongue(certainly when it is English). Advanced students have either been exposed to comments like W. Kayser's on the ending of Goethe's *Werther* and the difference in perspective subtly presented by the use of *Perfekt* in an otherwise *Präteritum* filled report(back to the speaker's larger real-time reality, if you will); or they have been doing cognitively/deductively organized exercises, e.g. from Sigbert Latzel's book of exercises on the use of these two German tenses(Übungen...). However, in the context of this unit of lessons there is the chance to see these forms used for a specific communicative activity in a situational context.

Necessary, however, for our penultimate lesson is that the students note, or are directed to, the importance of time in the day's trading. Most certainly in some of the newspaper reports used the role of the 'second half'(*2. Sitzungshälfte*) of the day's trading session is mentioned. Emphasizing time is necessary in our lessons, especially the further along we progress. It cropped up in the role play a few lessons before and in the previous lesson. In this next lesson it crops up in the form of the subtle and 'customer appealing' use of the two German tenses noted above. To restate the matter globally: German speakers expect two syntactic slots to be filled when talking about the past, English speakers--in 'affirmative' sentences--expect principally one. The fact that modern colloquial German seems to prefer Plusquamperfekt for Perfekt could also complicate the routine to be practiced here, although further analysis of the use of Plusquamperfekt today is needed. In a typical test this is annoying for the students; in a sensitive communicative routine, like advising someone with respect to investments this is annoying for the client/customer. I would consider this lesson to be optional and will,thus, not go into detail here. I will only say that the expressions and information from the previous lesson would now be used by a bank's investment counselor(Anlageberater) to advise a customer/client. The ensuing role-play skit could best be approached by using videotapes, hopefully with German speakers/investment specialists, either as models for the communicative routine or for purposes of discussion or self-correction after students have done the role play. In in-house training, this all perhaps becomes more important. Armed, however, either with this factual advice or with the terms and concepts form the preceding lessons, the students and teacher proceed to the penultimate lesson, a simulation of a typical trading day on the West German stock market floor.

The simulation assumes that the students now can act, not only in theatrical terms, within the West German supply and demand, buying and selling, stock market world,using the target language. The students should have a feel for the West German market's sociocultural pragmatics/specifics and for what is really at stake in functioning on the market floor, viz. other people's money. One can tell the students here that the shares exchanged are bearer shares(Inhaberaktien) and, thus, not to take it too personally; until the complaints come, of course. Comparing the advantages and disadvantages of bearer shares compared to shares registered in an individual's name can be enlightening for U.S. business students. (For more information see Streit 132.)

The classroom is prepared by the teacher to represent, through spatial divisions, the trading floor of the West German stock market. Chairs and desks and/or lecterns serve as or represent counters and cubicles or bank'offices' (Bankenbüros). A variation might be that the students themselves set up the needed spatial arrangement. Telephones, telexes and micros can be used.

Time is the other important component of our simulation. A West German trading day officially begins at 11:30 and ends at 1:30(13.30 Uhr). Another example of a more narrowly defined framework for trading than is found in New York or London. At the moment, we will leave the Vorbörse and Nachbörse out of consideration. This two-hour real-time period will be compressed, to scale, into a 45 or 60 minute learnign period. Since the end of the first half hour of trading is important for setting prices, we will divide the classroom's activities into corresponding 11 1/4 or 15 minute segments; each segment represents one half hour in real time. The students must function like the Kusmakler or Bankenvertreter or Freie Makler or as a member of the governing board supervising the day's activity(Börsenaufsicht). The teacher's job is to be a type of master of ceremonies.

Is it then a game or a simulation that is to take place here? Although the importance of defining these activities for pedagogical purposes is discussed in Ken Jones' Simulations in language teaching, I think we will begin the activity by calling it a near-simulation.

This is to be an elaborated version of the role play from before. The only instructions the students receive on entering the 'market floor' is to go to a stand or table representing the trading function they want to have. The supervisor for that day can be represented by two students. Newspapers reporting on the previous day's trading are to be found in an area clearly outside our room's trading floor. It would be best if the school schedule would permit a longer lesson or special session so that the students could prepare by getting information from these newspapers. The teacher, however, with watch and bell, gives the start signal.

Obviously, although not desired, the teacher can exert more control of the learning situation by assigning students funcitons for the day.

The teacher, of course, must certainly have done his or her homework. Not only must cards be prepared as in the role play before, with orders corresponding to prices and turnover in reality, but the teacher must also make up cards containing news about 'outside' influences: union decisions, political decisions, company news, scandals that have come to light etc. A variant could be that the students prepare such cards, using appropriately Perfekt or Präteritum, along with other tenses, of course.

Throughout the 'session' the teacher moves around the room, passing out buy and sell cards to the representatives of the banks. A good variant, which would more closely correspond to the telephone instructions these representatives also receive, would be to give the order orally. The market makers/ specialists are busy tallying up the orders and setting a price. On the classroom's 'Big Board', containing the appropriate number of columns, all the market participants can only see the previous day's closings. Also, as in reality, corresponding to the 11:55/12 real stock market time, the master of ceremonies or a (student) supervisor writes on the 'Big Board' the single fixed quotations(Einheitskurse) he or she has just collected. The closing prices for continuously traded stocks(fortlaufende Notierungen) are erased and replaced by the opening prices, after 12:15 real time, that is. This gofer really symbolizes a computer connection, the one that has been operating on a trial basis since September 1987, i.e. the afore-mentioned KISS. The use of computers in the lessons on data retrieval and here on transmission of data would make for an interesting filip. Yet interesting for our students should be the fact that the transmitter here supervises our Kursmakler. Such a control system is to be available with KISS; the member of the governing board at each session does have to supervise and make decisions(Aussetzung etc.), but not of the game type here. Here the person who enters the quotations,with appropriate codes and symbols, on the board is given at each appropriate time the real prices for that day, i.e. only the specific column of information from a newspaper. All now have a price to work with and some transactions can now be tallied up for Provision and Courtage. Yet orders keep coming in. With the stocks that are in the continuous quotation market a big order leads to a new price. At the end of the session our students then have to see how rich or how poor they have become, as Kursmakler, as Bankenvertreter or as customers who have played their own market, especially if they had been professionally advised in the optional role-playing lesson previous to this one. As a side note, some West German financial newspapers run *Börsenspiele*, which for normal student use would probably be too expensive and,because of communication(in its technical sense) difficulties,impractical to play. In the past couple of years local or regional banks have been organizing *Börsenspiele* for *Gymnasium* students. Perhaps something could be worked out with either of these types of organizations. Such a game could run parallel to, or perhaps be a project, like a term paper, that would run on beyond the series of lessons. It could then be discussed at the end of the course.

How rich or how poor an individual or specific companies or the country at large has become is the topic of the final lesson. With their present expertise the students are first to see how their uncritical pick of the first lesson has done. the resulting richness or poorness is to be compared to the results in the near-simulation the lesson before. Here, reports as written before are now to be constructed and used to discuss what has happened and what has been going on. We all know the typical humorous remarks that characterize well the complexity of stock market activity. In a West German union magazine I found this quote attributed to André Kostolany, *Börsenexperte*(as the magazine added), whose investment seminars are advertised in West German financial and national newspapers:

> ,,Die ganze Börse hängt nur davon ab, ob es
> mehr Aktien gibt als Idioten oder mehr Idioten
> als Aktien." (GEW 21)

For my taste, even more illuminating and to a point, is a remark in the The Lex Column of the London *Financial*

Times(30/31 January 1988). The writer notes that the U. S. Super Bowl results have proven to be an excellent predictor of rises and falls in the stock market. I can think of nothing better than to watch the football game, wait for the final score and then invest, ignoring blissfully man-made and natural influences on the markets.

One could be tempted to testily react here and say that such 'blissful ignorance' (academically speaking) was one factor leading up to October 87's Black Monday. Our students, however, have had the chance to see reality in a different light. They have been able to compare the characteristics of a West German share trading system with that of their own, thus gaining insight into their own system. Perhaps such students could have written a Brady report. They have also had the chance to see 'foreigners' in a different light, i.e. who and what they are and the role they play in the West German stock market(s). would they or would they not want to be such 'foreigners'? Could they become critical and sympathetic players in a world market?

At the same time, communicative expertise within this limited social area--stock market and investing--has been given a basis on which further instructional units or courses can be built. Obviously, the series is long and picking out parts for inclusion in other units or in other courses could be beneficial. A discussion of the other information found in the newspapers used, their political/philosophical stance, could be a tasty dish for German students who are in an academic program where business and technology are not alien to the course work. If the learning group were comprised mainly of business and investment students, then the simulation could be enriched with other financial instruments: bonds, non-listed stocks etc. Gaining experience working with apposite reference materials, as our students have done, is worthwhile for academic activity in general. Suggestions might come for storing possible translations and typical 'phrases'(Phraseologie again), i.e. word groups and collocations(as Newmark calls them), in a computer system, if a multi-disciplinary approach is undertaken. The main thing is, though, to follow the American football season.

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TEACHING BUSINESS LETTER SKILLS IN A BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE ON THE SECOND-YEAR LEVEL

by

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TEACHING BUSINESS LETTER SKILLS IN A BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE ON THE SECOND-YEAR LEVEL

In a recent article John M. Grandin addresses the problem of using business letters to teach Business German.[1] Despite voicing initial misgivings over using such a complicated form of communication, he states that we owe it to the students to teach letter writing skills, if we want them to function in a German business context. The students themselves are also interested in mastering these skills, since the ability to understand and produce business correspondence would be of interest to any potential employer. Therefore the expectations brought to courses or course sections in business letter writing are generally high. The students hope to learn how to write letters, the professors feel the pressure to devote considerable time to the task. If they expect to prepare their students for the Diplom Wirtschaftsdeutsch, they will probably want to use letter writing as the primary vehicle for preparing the students for the written portion of the exam.[2]

No doubt given enough time and energy these goals are accomplishable. Many professors, however, who are faced with the task know that, given the time and the talent available, they cannot possibly bring their students to the point where they can function as perfect combinations of businessmen and bilingual secretaries. For example, when I was preparing a three course sequence (three hours per week for three ten-week quarters) in Business German and decided to integrate some "letter writing skills," I knew that I would have to limit mine and the students' expectations. For several reasons we have to offer our Business German courses on the second year level, and the majority of the students enters them with only 90 hours of preparation in German behind them.[3] Since I know from experience how few guidelines and how little material is available to ease the task of preparing an essentially "elementary" section in business letters, I would like to share my experiences with my colleagues.

The text we decided to use for the complete three course sequence was Merrifield's _Deutsche Wirtschaftssprache für Amerikaner_.[4] I do not intend to discuss the manner in which that book was used, but to concentrate on the integration of the business letters into the sequence. The students did not actually have to order a specific textbook for this purpose, but several were recommended as we went along.[5] They were told that I would bring materials to class as they needed them and they were given an outline of the skills they were expected to master: first of all the ability to understand and produce the proper external form of business letters, secondly the ability to recognize and to interpret different types of letters and their characteristics. The actual production of letters was going to be approached too, but the students were told that we would start slowly and perhaps only work on parts of letters and that it was up to them how far we went.

These "business letter skills" were taught in two-to-three hour chunks, which were inserted into the regular class materials at certain intervals, generally at the rate of two to three chunks per quarter. The business letter material constituted a continuous sequence. The actual pedagogical sequence for producing business letters which the Goethe Institute advocates was followed in its main features,[6] but we concentrated on overpracticing the first-taught elements of learning to master the form and to understand the general content with variants. Eventually we did indeed go beyond this to a limited degree, but my experience has convinced me that the originally set goals are realistic and to some degree constitute the limit that can be reached with beginners in Business German.

In an initial lecture the students were introduced to the general purpose of business correspondence and to several different types of letters, such as *Anfrage*, *Angebot*, *Bestellung*, *Lieferung*, *Reklamation* and *Zahlung*. The circumstances under which such letters might appear were outlined briefly, since the majority of our students is in science or engineering and their knowledge of business practices is limited.

The first skill they had to master was to put each letter into an outwardly acceptable form. They had to know the proper order and construction of such elements as *Briefkopf*, *Bezugszeichen*, *Adresse*, *Datum*, etc. In some instances, a large variety of variants could be introduced. The students had to know, for example, whether to address "Herr Professor Dr. Hugo Anders" as "Sehr geehrter Herr Dr.," or "Sehr geehrter Herr Professor Anders," or "Lieber Dr. Hugo Anders," or any number of versions thereof. Almost any business letter session from that point on started with some small problem which would test them in these external matters. The problems could be handed out in written form and collected for grading, or they could be presented orally and informally. Several types were used. For example:

a. The "spot the error" problem. The students were given a fully set up letter, in which some element was not in its proper place, or had been left out.

b. The students were given a series of Anreden (or other elements) containing correct and incorrect versions. They had to circle the correct ones.

c. Eventually the students were asked to compose the external form elements on their own. This started with limited assignments, such as: "Sie sind bei IBM in Atlanta und schreiben an Herrn Professor Schrader an der Universität Hamburg. Wie muß die Adresse aussehen? Wie reden Sie den Professor an? Wo müssen Adresse und Anrede stehen?" Later on this could be extended to more complex ones, for example: "Ein Brief geht von Herrn Johann Schmid in der Versandabteilung der Firma Hoechst in Frankfurt/Main an den Tierarzt Roland Maier in Stuttgart. Setzen Sie die äußere Form des Briefes auf. Benutzen Sie, was Sie haben. Erfinden Sie den Rest. Die Form muß vollständig sein."

d. After several types of business letters had been introduced, the following task could be assigned:

TRANSPARENCY 1

The next step was to introduce the students to the various types of business letters and their content. They were given sample letters and short synopses of the likely content of any one type of letter, such as:[8]

TRANSPARENCY 2

After several types of letters had been introduced, the students were again presented with short problems or tests at the beginning of business letter writing periods. For example:

a. They might get a letter and put it into the appropriate "category." They would have to underline the phrases that gave them their clues.

b. They would be given a key element from a certain type of letter and would have to identify the type of letter it could occur in.

The students were encouraged to note correspondences between the inner and outer form of letters. An Anfrage, for example, has no listing under Ihr Zeichen, since it has not been preceded by previous correspondence.

The students were also introduced to the typical phrases and vocabulary they might encounter in different types of letters. The number of possible variations here is of course infinite, but in some areas we are dealing with limited units. The students had to recognize, for example, that the first point in an *Anfragebrief* might involve references to *Messe*, *Broschüre*, *Prospekt* or *Anzeige* as possible initial contact points for two businesses.

It was encouraging to find that most of the students were very good at identifying familiar phrases and given clues. Some attempt, however, had to be made to keep the complexities in certain areas to a minimum. When, for example, in the context of *Bestellung*, the *Zahlungsbedingungen* and *Lieferbedingungen* were introduced, the students were initially given short lists of possible terms with - admittedly oversimplified - definitions.[7] For example:

> "frei" bedeutet, daß der Kunde nicht zahlen muß
>
> "30 Tage Ziel" bedeutet, daß der Kunde 30 Tage Zeit zum Bezahlen hat

This truncated terminology was nevertheless confusing to our second year students, probably because they knew too little about business. Eventually I simply asked them to recognize terms in general ways and to learn to place them into one of the two categories, such as:

> Bestimmen Sie: Zahlungsbedingung oder Lieferbedingung?
> "frei Grenze," "cif," "60 Tage Ziel," "Kasse gegen Dokumente," "an Lager..."

In general, however, the difficulty of the test problems could be increased to a greater degree, especially where the subject matter itself was simpler. For example, as far as closing phrases for letters, or phrases used to express the hope that the customer would place an order were concerned the students actively learned to handle many different constructions. To help them acquire a certain repertoire, we would once again start by underlining significant elements in phrases like "Nach Rucksprache mit Ihrem Vertreter bestelle ich...," or "Wir bestellen auf Grund Ihrer Anzeige...[9]" or "Wir möchten eine erneute Bestellung aufgeben..." Later on the students were given the same phrases with parts thereof blanked out and they would have to fill in the missing information. As an additional task a letter might be given in cut up or scrambled form, and the students had to reassemble it with all of the external and internal elements in proper order. While it might be argued that the scanning techniques the students primarily employ in completing these tasks do not lead to a full and appropriate understanding of business correspondence, they are a helpful pedagogical tool. First of all they are a valid starting point and perhaps even a necessary precursor of more complete reading techniques, since they mirror the way students read in their own language, secondly they give them confidence and the feeling that they are "understanding," perhaps even before that is fully the case.[10]

As the course progressed, the students got adept enough at recognizing and using set phrases, so I could ask them to pay more attention to the finer points of business letters, such as the specific product mentioned, or certain unique conditions in a given supplier - recipient relationship.

TEACHING BUSINESS LETTER SKILLS IN A BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE ON THE SECOND-YEAR LEVEL

Since we had at other points of the course dealt with some aspects of trade or marketing. I presented them with some simple situations similar to those we had encountered under those circumstances and asked them to formulate appropriate letters. Once again we began with partial production tasks, for example: TRANSPARENCY 3

Eventually the student progressed to slightly more independent tasks, such as the following: TRANSPARENCY 4

No attempt was made to make the tasks even more complex, such as providing only a vague outline of a given situation and asking them to visualize for themselves how a letter would have to be phrased under those circumstances and what elements it would have to contain. The reason for that was not only that the students did not have the language skills necessary at that point, but also that their lack of knowledge of trade practices, for example, would make such a task frustrating.

As one of the last assignments the students were given the excerpt of materials from UNSERE POST (Informationsmappe, Stand 06/80) shown on p. 11. The letter was blanked out and the students had to reconstruct it on the basis of the information given in the other three "communications." TRANSPARENCY 5

The students respomded to the approach with continued interest. My initial fear that the on-again, off-again approach would confuse them proved unfounded. They were quite happy that they did not have to master each skill at once and that they could discuss different topics in between the business letter segments. Furthermore, I often brought little problems or tasks dealing with business letter to the regular classes, especially if the material covered in Merrifield lent itself to presentation via letter.

While we were discussing _Industrie und Handel_, for example, the students could already set up the external form of a letter to any _Handelskammer_. When banking was on the agenda, they could formulate the opening phrases of a simple letter to a bank, perhaps requesting information on setting up a savings account. When we were dealing with _Marketing_, a letter presenting a fictional new product was written to an appropriate party. While we were discussing _Gesellschaftsformen_, the students filled in the elements of a letter to a lawyer, asking for information about certain aspects of corporative organisation. In this manner we could reinforce both letter writing skills and at the same time practice the vocabulary introduced in the Merrifield chapters in slightly different ways.

The general consensus was that this last aspect of the letter writing sequence should be expanded. It allows for a good deal of creativity on the part of the student and the teacher and keeps the interest in the topic alive.

TEACHING BUSINESS LETTER SKILLS IN A BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE ON THE SECOND-YEAR LEVEL

FOOTNOTES

[1] John M. Grandin, "Teaching German Business Correspondence: A Computer-Assisted Approach," Unterrichtspraxis, 19, 1 (1986), pp. 49-54.

[2] Both the Duisberg Society and the Goethe Institute advocate strictly the kind of course leading to the Diplom. (I have attended the summer sessions of both as well as all of the workshops in Business German given at the Goethe Institute Atlanta over the course of several years.) It should be mentioned that the Diplom may also require the production of Telex or Memo, but that the Goethe workshops pay little formal attention to either and concentrate essentially on pointing out the differences between these forms of communication and the business letter.

[3] It should be pointed out, however, that the achievement levels of our students are relatively high. After their 90 hours of German many ranked 2 and 2+ on the Foreign Service language proficiency ranking scale, both in understanding and grammatical proficiency.

[4] Doris F. Merrifield, Deutsche Wirtschaftssprache für Amerikaner (New York: Wiley, 1985).

[5] See Grandin's article for an excellent discussion of useful texts.

[6] Based on an October 1985 workshop.

[7] The letter was distributed during the October 1985 workshop. As far as it is now possible to tell, both the

letter and the assignment are from I. Martelly and G. Nicolas, La correspondence commerciale en Allemand (Berlin, Paris, 1985). Both have been abbreviated for this paper.

[8] This material is based primarily on Rudolf Sachs, Deutsche Handelskorrespondenz (München: Hueber, 1985) and on handouts from the Goethe Institute.

[9] Sachs, p. 22.

[10] This is a point frequently stressed by the pedagogical staff of the Goethe Institute. See also Inge Laveau, Sach- und Fachtexte im Unterricht, Methodisch-didaktische Vorschläge für den Lehrer (München: Goethe Institut, 1985).

[11] Based on Sachs, p. 36.

TEACHING BUSINESS LETTER SKILLS IN A BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE ON THE SECOND-YEAR LEVEL

TRANSPARENCY 1

"Beantworten Sie den gegebenen Brief. Schreiben Sie nur Dinge aus, für die Sie Information haben."[7]

Helmut Wagner und Sohn
Leipziger Str. 250
3600 Kassel

WAGNER
TEXTILWARENFABRIK

Schrader und Lehmann
Einkaufsabteilung
Max-Richter-Str. 95
8970 Immenstadt

Ihr Zeichen,	Ihre Nachricht vom	Unser Zeichen	Tel: Kassel
fr-bl	02.03...	L-hf	03.06..

Betreff:

Angebot über Strickjacken

Sehr geehrte Damen und Herren!

xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx.

Hochachtungsvoll,

Helmut Wagner und Sohn
gez. Peter Funke

TEACHING BUSINESS LETTER SKILLS IN A BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE ON THE SECOND-YEAR LEVEL

TRANSPARENCY 2

a. Inhalt einer Anfrage:

Woher kenne ich die Firma

Warum frage ich an

Was möchte ich wissen

Angabe einer Referenz

b. Inhalt eines Angebotes:

Grund für das Angebot

Preisliste

Hinweis auf Produkteigenschaften

Hoffnung auf Bestellung

TEACHING BUSINESS LETTER SKILLS IN A BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE ON THE SECOND-YEAR LEVEL

TRANSPARENCY 3

Schreiben Sie einen "Anfragebrief." Benutzen Sie die richtige Form. Füllen Sie die Lücken in dem Brief unten mit passenden Worten und Ausdrücken. Der Brief geht von Herrn Peter Müller, einem Einzelhändler, an Herrn Georg Bender bei der Firma Heinemann und Co. in Düsseldorf, Rosenstr. 309. Wählen Sie selber das Produkt, von dem Herr Müller spricht. Er schreibt:

Vor kurzem habe ich ____________ von Ihr_____ ___________ erfahren.

Ich nehme an, daß ich bald selbst ______________ in meinem Geschäft aufnehmen werde, und bin an Ihrer Auswahl interessiert. Bitte senden Sie mir __________, damit ich mich ausführlicher über Ihr Produkt informieren kann.

Schreiben Sie einen guten Schlußsatz.

TEACHING BUSINESS LETTER SKILLS IN A BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE ON THE SECOND-YEAR LEVEL

TRANSPARENCY 4

Die Goldwarenfabrik J. Hammer in Pforzheim (Postleitzahl 7530), Postfach 298, schickt eine Bestellung an die Tachibana Pearl Co. in Nagoya, Japan. Herr Haberle von J. Hammer bedankt sich für einen Brief vom 2. März und gibt eine neue Bestellung auf. Er möchte 40 Stück Perlen (Größe 4-4,5 mm, Preis pro Stück $ 4,-) und 100 Stück (Größe 5-5,5 mm, Preis pro Stück $ 5,-) bestellen. Herr Haberle betont, daß man keine anderen Größen benötigt. Geben Sie einen Grund dafür an. Er erinnert Tachibana daran, daß die Form der Bezahlung dieselbe bleibt. Sie können die Form nennen.[11]

TEACHING BUSINESS LETTER SKILLS IN A BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE ON THE SECOND-YEAR LEVEL

TRANSPARENCY 5

Folgende Nachricht der Firma Jansen Export GmbH in Hamburg an die Firma Metallwaren AG in Köln wird als Telefongespräch, Fernschreiben, Telegramm und Brief übermittelt:

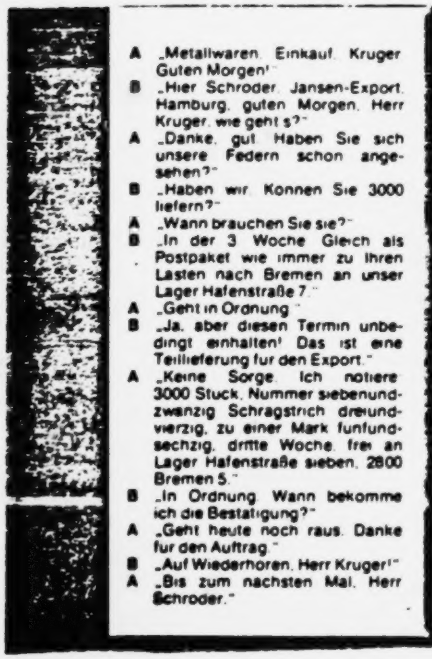
a. Bestellung von 3000 Stahlfedern Artikelnummer 27/43

b. Stückpreis DM 1,65 + MwSt.

c. Lieferung 3. Woche, Postversand frei Lager, Hafenstr. 7
2800 Bremen

d. Auftragsbestätigung erbeten

Telefongespräch



A „Metallwaren, Einkauf, Kruger. Guten Morgen!“

B „Hier Schroder, Jansen-Export, Hamburg, guten Morgen, Herr Kruger, wie geht's?“

A „Danke, gut. Haben Sie sich unsere Federn schon angesehen?“

B „Haben wir. Konnen Sie 3000 liefern?“

A „Wann brauchen Sie sie?“

B „In der 3. Woche. Gleich als Postpaket wie immer zu Ihren Lasten nach Bremen an unser Lager Hafenstraße 7.“

A „Geht in Ordnung.“

B „Ja, aber diesen Termin unbedingt einhalten! Das ist eine Teillieferung fur den Export.“

A „Keine Sorge. Ich notiere 3000 Stuck, Nummer siebenundzwanzig Schragstrich dreiundvierzig, zu einer Mark funfundsechzig, dritte Woche, frei an Lager Hafenstraße sieben, 2800 Bremen 5.“

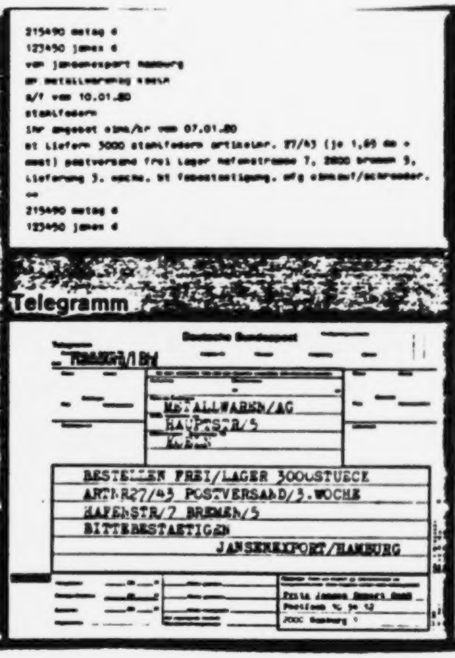
B „In Ordnung. Wann bekomme ich die Bestatigung?“

A „Geht heute noch raus. Danke fur den Auftrag.“

B „Auf Wiederhoren, Herr Kruger!“

A „Bis zum nachsten Mal, Herr Schroder.“

Fernschreiben



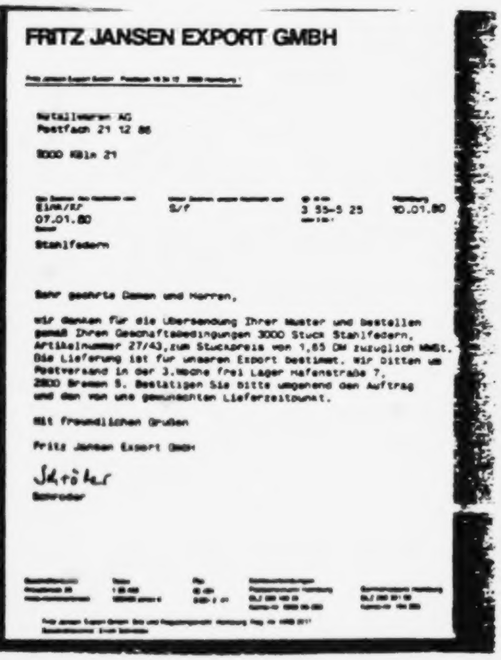
215490 metag d
123450 jamex d
von jansenexport hamburg
an metallwarenag koeln
s/f vom 10.01.80
stahlfedern
ihr angebot eima/kr vom 07.01.80
bt liefern 3000 stahlfedern artikelnr. 27/43 (je 1,65 dm + mwst) postversand frei lager hafenstrasse 7, 2800 bremen 5, lieferung 3. woche. bt faxbestaetigung. mfg einkauf/schroeder.
++
215490 metag d
123450 jamex d

Telegramm

METALLWAREN/AG
HAUPTSTR/5
KOELN

BESTELLEN FREI/LAGER 3000STUECK
ARTNR27/43 POSTVERSAND/3.WOCHE
HAFENSTR/7 BREMEN/5
BITTEBESTAETIGEN
JANSENEXPORT/HAMBURG

Brief/Fernkopie



FRITZ JANSEN EXPORT GMBH

Metallwaren AG
Postfach 21 12 86

5000 Köln 21

EIMA/KR
07.01.80

S/f

3 55-5 25

10.01.80

Stahlfedern

Sehr geehrte Damen und Herren,

wir danken für die Übersendung Ihrer Muster und bestellen gemäß Ihren Geschaftsbedingungen 3000 Stuck Stahlfedern, Artikelnummer 27/43, zum Stuckpreis von 1,65 DM zuzuglich MwSt. Die Lieferung ist fur unseren Export bestimmt. Wir bitten um Postversand in der 3. Woche frei Lager Hafenstraße 7, 2800 Bremen 5. Bestatigen Sie bitte umgehend den Auftrag und den von uns gewunschten Lieferzeitpunkt.

Mit freundlichen Grußen

Fritz Jansen Export GmbH

Schröder
Schroder

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AUTHENTIC MATERIALS FOR THE BUSINESS GERMAN CLASSROOM

by

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AUTHENTIC MATERIALS FOR THE BUSINESS GERMAN CLASSROOM

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The Goethe Institute has been sponsoring Produktionsseminare in the United States since 1984. During the summer of 1987, however, the first Erlebte Landeskunde-Wirtschaft Seminar was held in Düsseldorf, Federal Republic of Germany. During this two-week seminar, participants observed first hand individual businesses as well as other institutions related to the West German business scene and, more importantly, gathered authentic materials on location. In the follow-up seminar held in Chicago in March 1988, American participants of the Düsseldorf seminar developed some authentic materials collected in Düsseldorf and the Ruhr Industrial District into instructional units for the Business German classroom.[1] As a leader (Karottki) and a participant (Denk) at both seminars, the presenters can offer insights into problems frequently encountered while preparing authentic materials for use in the Business German classroom. The presentation is divided into two sections. The first section (Denk) discusses reasons for using authentic materials and focuses on reading strategies to be used in conjunction with authentic German business texts. The second section (Karottki) illustrates common pitfalls encountered in developing exercises designed to enhance student access to authentic materials.[2]

As Rusterholz points out in her article, the major emphasis in Business Foreign Language courses was initially placed on business writing skills; and although the focus has changed recently to speaking and listening skills, the reading skill has remained neglected for the most part (427). Frequently, the reading selections included in textbooks are written specifically for Americans by Americans. Many experts, however, argue for "the use of authentic language in instructional materials wherever and whenever possible" (Omaggio 47; also Edelhoff and Neuner 25). This does not mean, however, that the authentic materials can not or should not be prepared for instructional use. Neuner specifies three characteristics of authentic texts: 1. they always have a communicative function, 2. they are addressed to a real audience, and 3. they have a specific form, e.g. a newspaper article or a news report (25). The contexts for Business Foreign Language practice should be derived as much as possible from culturally authentic sources. The use of newspaper or magazine articles, press releases, annual reports, etc. will acquaint students more directly with real language than any set of contrived classroom materials used alone; and students enroll in our Business German classrooms for instruction to prepare themselves for the real world.

Omaggio cites two main reasons given by reading specialists for the use of authentic reading materials: 1. Simplifying a text often removes the natural redundancy found in authentic reading selections and thus changes the text's rhetorical organization to some extent. This tampering with the text may indeed make the text more difficult to read, comprehend, and discuss than the original. 2. The difficulty of a reading exercise and a typical reading assignment is not necessarily a function of the text to be read as it is a function of whatever type of task or activity we expect of our students as they attempt to comprehend the reading text. Therefore, we should consider adjusting the task, and not the reading passage, when we design reading comprehension activities (152). Materials selected should be appropriate in form and content to student proficiency levels as well as their fields of interest. Furthermore, the tasks that students are asked to perform with the materials presented to them must also be geared to their proficiency level.

June Phillips described a five-stage process that she developed so that students, i.e. readers of texts, can attain a global reading proficiency: 1. preteaching/preparation stage, 2. skimming and scanning stages, 3. decoding/intensive reading stage, 4. comprehension check, and 5. transferable/integrating skills (289).

1. Preteaching/preparation stage. This stage is based on the premise that what the reader brings to the text is of primary importance in comprehending it. Furthermore, anticipation and prediction are highly desirable, indeed necessary, skills for reading. Students should build up expectancies for the material about to be read. In the real world, reading expectations are built into situations; when I look at the MLA Job List, I seek out key words such as "Business German" or "Coordinator" or "Twentieth Century." In second language situations, expectations

are not quite so forthcoming. Frequently, students look at a title of a text and are relieved when they have translated the title correctly, and then sigh when they discover that there are six more pages to "translate."

Schema theory tells us that a text does not carry meaning by itself and that we bring our knowledge of the world to the text. The background knowledge that we as readers possess is organized into structures called schemata. It is important to activate these schemata so that information from reading selections can be incorporated into existing schemata. Second language learners can experience distortions in comprehension not only because of misinterpretations of linguistic elements in the message, but also because of a misinterpretation of a schema, activated due to cultural bias. Classroom activities designed to promote student predictive skills include: 1. brainstorming to highlight vocabulary or to generate ideas with a high probability of appearing in the text; 2. reading accompanying contextual information such as visuals, titles, headlines, descriptive statements with pictures, charts, maps (i.e. visual organizers and other script activators); 3. determining sequence or reviewing with a continuing narrative; and 4. pure prediction where students hypothesize about the significance of a title or anticipate the completion of the first line. Edelhoff provides a number of suggestions that can be done in either native or target language: 1. ask students what they know about a particular topic; 2. introduce fundamental concepts of the reading passage;

3. clear up essential words and phrases, especially those that could not be guessed from context, e.g. names or other cultural information necessary to understanding the reading passage; and/or 4. paraphrasing the content in simpler words by the instructor. However diverse the prereading activities, the goal is to provide or supplement background information and thus to make the text more accessible to students. All parts of the process should lead the learner to the point where the learner can communicate on his or her own in the target language.

2. Skimming/scanning stages. Though skimming (getting the gist) and scanning (locating specific information) are distinct processes to be practiced individually, Phillips maintains that skillful readers in real world situations do scan while they skim. Phillips suggests some of the following activities for students to practice at this stage: 1. getting the gist of short readings, paragraphs, or authentic materials; 2. identifying topic sentences or main ideas; 3. selecting the best paraphrase from multiple-choice options of the main idea of a text or of its conclusion; 4. matching subtitles with paragraphs; 5. filling in chars or forms with key concepts; 6. creating titles or headlines for reading selections; and 7. making judgments about or reacting to reading passages (290). Scanning goes a step further than skimming, as readers located more specific detail requiring additional amount of comprehension. When planning scanning exercises for use with authentic materials, one

can also accommodate students working with different reading selections.

Janet Swaffar argues, however, that students should move directly from skimming to scanning. Students are asked to skim a passage to determine whether the text deals with problems, people or organizations, events or ideas. Then students/readers move on to scan the passage more carefully and to identify the main problems, ideas, etc. presented in the text. An important implication of Swaffar's process is the potential internalization of this reading process so that readers maintain this procedure even in out-of-class reading situations.

In her introduction to Mosaik: Deutsche Kultur Claire Kramsch argues for a separation of skimming and scanning. She suggests to students that they read a given text twice. During the first reading she encourages students to "focus on what does make sense (cognates, compound words, logical relationships between words and whole phrases) and skip what you don't understand" (3). The second reading will then provide students with a better feel for the content; however, during the second and third reading of a ext students will already by scanning for specific informational items. Some activities recommended to practice scanning are: 1. listing and connecting information found in the text; 2. reading with a specific purpose or goal in mind; 3. targeting specific information for students to find while reading a text; 4. providing a logical or chronological sequence of informational pieces; 5. categorizing information in an outline, a diagram, or another schematical representation where students fill in various missing elements; and 6. matching informational items from two columns.

3. Decoding/intensive reading stage. At this stage the assignment of meaning in a detailed and informative way becomes the main task; decoding is the key process for intensive reading. As long as readers are still "learning to read" as opposed to "reading to learn," decoding will be necessary because many items in the reading passage will be either unrecognizable or unknown. The amount of decoding should be reduced because of the preparatory work that students/readers have completed, viz. prereading activities, skimming, and scanning. Decoding involves guessing from context the meaning of unknown words or phrases and may be needed at the word, phrase, or discourse level. Readers need to be taught not only how to guess the meaning of content words, but also how to interpret the force of connectors, determine the relationships among sentences or sentence elements, and the like. As Phillips concludes, "The aim of instruction is not solely the explication of a particular passage but also the demonstration of a process to students; in the final analysis, conscious, detailed decoding is not a common goal of reading. Fluency and rapid understanding are the desired objectives" (293). Only when comprehension is impeded by unknown words, complex structures, or very unfamiliar concepts do skilled readers resort to decoding.

4. Comprehension stage. Phillips states that reading comprehension exercises should: 1. not confound the reading skill with other skills, especially the productive skills (speaking and writing) and 2. that reading comprehension checks should project the reader through several phases of the reading process (293). If comprehension is to be checked in the students' native language, students can be asked about main ideas of the text, supporting details, elements of the argument, inferences about the attitude or purpose of the writer, or an evaluation of the authenticity of the information conveyed in the text. If comprehension is to be checked in German, remaining in the reading mode has the advantage of allowing for a rearrangement of ideas based on lexical substitution, syntactical rewordings or logical paraphrases. Thus true/false statements or variations of true/false statements such as forced choice or adding a "no-information given" category may be used as well as multiple choice or completion exercises.

5. Transferable/integrating skills. Phillips argues that the final stage should go beyond the individual features of a text and focus on reading strategies per se so that these strategies may be employed by readers when they next read a text in or outside of the classroom. Exercises especially useful in this stage are: 1. exercises that encourage contextual guessing; 2. selective reading for main ideas; 3. activities to promote appropriate dictionary usage; and 4. effective re-reading strategies to confirm or to disprove hypotheses that may have

been formulated during the previous stages. Rusterholz suggests a further post-reading activity that is also designed to help students the reason for reading a particular text, viz. "to move beyond the immediate parameters of the text to apply the reading to a realistic situation in the business context" (433).

Now, my friend and colleague, Hartmut Karottki, will provide hands-on examples that illustrate common pitfalls encountered in developing such exercises designed to enhance student access to authentic materials in the Business German classroom.[3]

NOTES

1. Samples of authentic materials that have been prepared as instructional units for the Business German classroom may be obtained by writing to Hartmut Karottki, Goethe Institute, 401 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, IL 60611.

2. The Karotkki segment of the presentation consisted of hands-on examples displayed via an overhead projector. For more information, please contact Hartmut Karottki, Goethe Institute, 401 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, IL 60611.

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THE CONCEPT OF INTERACTIVE BUSINESS COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH AND GERMAN

by

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THE CONCEPT OF INTERACTIVE BUSINESS COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH AND GERMAN

The following paper will cover three aspects:

1. The PRACTICAL ASPECT is a brief status report of different approaches to business English as it is taught at various institutions in Germany today (a.o. "Volkshochschulen","Fachhochschulen", "Berufsakademien").
2. The THEORETICAL ASPECT covers questions relating to (a) the target group and the degree of specialized English required, (b) the communicative situations that are relevant for the future business executive who interacts in more than one language, and (c) the combination of language skills needed for dealing effectively with business situations in more than one language.
3. The DIDACTICAL ASPECT attempts to formulate objectives for a business English program that are based on the practical foreign language needs identified in recent surveys in Germany (Bausch K.-R. et al.1980, Christ, H./Liebe, E./Schroder,K. 1979, Christ, H./Schwarze A. 1985, Schröder, K./Langheld,D./Macht, K. 1978).

The key to the didactic aspect is the concept of INTERACTIVE BUSINESS COMPETENCE which is introduced as the overall objective for a business language program (English or German). It consists of three interrelated components:

3.1 a LANGUAGE COMPONENT which combines the traditional skills of listening, reading, writing and speaking into a complex of communicative functions.

3.2 a BUSINESS COMPONENT which integrates English language and business subject matter into business courses in English. And

3.3 an INTERACTIVE COMPONENT which goes beyond the concept of communicative competence and stresses the socio-intercultural aspect of language as a form of interaction.

Figure 1

THE CONCEPT OF INTERACTIVE BUSINESS COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH

incorporates three interrelated components:

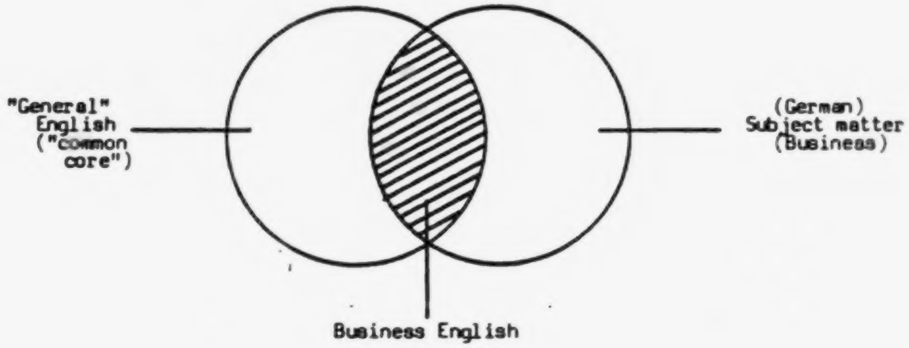
1 THE LANGUAGE COMPONENT

- is based on the concept that the traditional skills of
  - listening
  - reading
  - writing
  - speaking are interrelated

  and need to be taught as a complex of communicative functions.

2 THE BUSINESS COMPONENT

- is based on the conviction that English language skills and (German) subject matter overlap


"General" English ("common core")
(German) Subject matter (Business)
Business English

- and need to be integrated as far as possible to achieve fast and effective business language learning.

3 THE INTERACTIVE COMPONENT

- is based on the understanding that language is a form of interaction that goes beyond mere "communicative skills"
- and that interactive language teaching needs to incorporate intercultural aspects in a situational approach.

FIGURE: 1

1.0 The Practical Aspect

We can distinguish two basic schools of thought in teaching business English in Germany:

(1) a "commercial correspondence orientation" and

(2) integrated business and language courses.

In the first case, the focus is on teaching a foreign language. Business topics, mostly of a solely commercial orientation, merely serve as a framework for teaching English grammar, idioms, vocabulary or communicative functions. As such, the past tense in English for example is practiced by filling in the blanks in sentences like:

From September 1970 to August 1971, I ------ a secretarial course. (Wolff, BUSINESS ENGLISH FOR YOUR JOB 1981,3/1985).

The student is supposed to fill in the correct form of the past tense like "attended" or "participated in". The only business content here is the term "secretarial course" and the language form of the past tense could just as well be taught in general English exercises.

Very often "communicative skills" are taught by reading fragmentary dialogues that provide cues of a telephone conversation for example and it seems questionable whether it is important enough to dedicate a whole unit of telephone answering varieties on a pattern drill level to students who are trained to interpret quantitative data in their other courses of study and whether the time would not be better allocated to teaching the techniques of making a business presentation.

We can see from these simple examples that the primary objective in the "commercial correspondence orientation" is language, not business. In practice, this is the most typical and commonly taught concept of English for business purposes today. It prevails for example in the London Chamber of Commerce and Industry courses leading to the English for commerce certificate examination. The same approach is used in courses preparing students for the German Chamber of Commerce and industry examination for the

Wirtschaftskorrespondent certificate in English.

The teaching and learning of English, not business, is the prime objective and it is typical for these courses that they stress written skills: a three-hour written exam is required to pass English for Commerce, while the oral examination is to last between 7 - 10 minutes, that's only about 5% of the total examination requirement.

The situation in Germany is not much better: the proportion of written to oral communication for the Wirtschaftskorrespondent-examination is 90 : 10.

It should be mentioned here that the courses leading to the German Volkshochschul-certificate "English for business purposes" are beginning to move away from their traditional orientation of building a basic or advanced business vocabulary and are attempting to integrate more COMMUNICATIVE skills. The inclusion of so-called "language operations" moves them closer to the functional approach, originally developed within the Council of Europe's functions and notions concept. However, they, too, are still very much written-biased: a 250 minute written examination compares with a 25 minute oral test.

Basically, the commercial correspondence orientation is also found in the Berufsakademien in Baden-Württemberg (e. g. Mannheim): their stated emphasis is on business terminology - although at least they want it to be taught on the basis of relevant business articles or Anglo-American business textbooks. In the written area their curriculum is very explicit: all varieties of commercial correspondence are to be covered from the various British and American letter head styles all the way to debt collection letters. As far as speaking skills are concerned, however, the requirements are at best vague: oral communication is to be taught via translation and interpreting exercises. There are no stated objectives or guidelines.

At the other end of the spectrum of teaching business English in Germany, we can observe a trend toward courses of study that attempt more integration of business content and foreign language teaching. Language here is not the objective but rather the means of teaching. In the ideal case it is taught through business, similar to Widdowsons "English through science" concept which he introduced in 1968. Here, courses offered range from "US Fiscal or Monetary Policy" to "Interpreting Financial Data" or "Understanding Corporate Structure" (European Business School (EBS), Schloss Reichartshausen).

Study programs that combine the two subjects of business and English are becoming increasingly fashionable in the academic as well as in the practical field. Since about the end of the seventies the universities of Giessen and Erlangen-Nürnberg have instituted Business AND English courses as an alternative to their traditional literature-oriented "Anglistik" teacher training courses but these programs are primarily designed to fit the needs of future teachers who organize or implement business in-house English language training programs.

An even clearer trend towards integrating business subject matter and language skills can be seen in the programs for European business administration at the Fachhochschule Reutlingen and the European Business School, Schloss Reichartshausen (Östrich-Winkel). These programs are tailored to the needs of future Euro-managers and are proving to be very successful. Graduates of these programs are equipped with practical business experience in at least two countries (industrial placement periods in an English company are integrated in the course), a B.A. in European Business Administration and a German "Diplom", and are, to quote the TIMES, "certainly marketable" (The Times, Feb. 7, 1985). Entry requirements and the course of study are usually tough but the "return on investment" is high: in 1985, 64 graduates from the European Business School had 171 job offers to choose from and in Reutlingen 50% of the 1985 graduates-to-be had signed employment contracts before graduation (Manager Magazin 1, 86).

2.0 The Theoretical Aspect

Apparently, these integrated language and business courses are very successful. Before we take a closer look at how such programs can be developed it is necessary to look at some theoretical questions concerning the objectives of a course in business language (either German or English), namely: where, when, and how will English later be used on the job or, more specifically: can

(1) the target group or business professional profiles,

(2) typical business situations,

(3) and the language skill requirements

be sufficiently specified to provide a basis for designing an English course tailored to fit the future businessman/-woman?

We will attempt to answer some of these questions on the basis of the results of a number of regional foreign language need surveys of German companies that have been conducted in the late 70s and early 80s (Bausch K.-R. et al.1980, Christ, H./Liebe, E./Schröder,K. 1979, Christ, H./Schwarze A. 1985, Schröder, K./Langheld,D./Macht, K. 1978).

All of these surveys basically agree in the areas concerning business profiles, business situations and required language skills.

2.1 Business Profiles

There is general agreement that due to the political and economic interdependence in all Western countries the use of foreign languages is a very common phenomenon - not just on the top floor or the secretarial level. One survey conducted in the area of Cologne and Düsseldorf (Germany) lists 253 different positions - primarily in middle management - in which English is needed - among them board assistant, product manager or senior programmer.

Considering this broad professional scope, the question arises, of course, whether a business language course should - and could - be tailored to fit all of those specific needs. And if not all, what are the needs that it should be tailored to? Here, I would suggest that since a college business administration program is designed to provide a moderately specialized training with a practical orientation on a scientific basis, it would make sense to orient the English program towards the general business profile and not aim at a more specialized program. In more concrete terms this means that since colleges do not train company presidents or secretaries, the instruction in a business language should not be limited to either cocktail party conversation or commercial correspondence. Rather, it should be aimed at reinforcing the general business subject matter courses that are taught in the respective native languages, preferably focusing in on the country-specifics that lend themselves to comparison. For example, a general finance course in German could be supplemented by an English seminar on the differences between financial reporting in the US and Germany.

Thus, the answer to our first theoretical question, namely what's needed by our target group - business graduates - seems to be clear: A business English or German program should teach to the communicative, or better interactive skills in areas that are generally needed by any businessman or -woman, regardless of his/her later placement. These could be a.o. finance, organization or general management, i.e. areas that would be taught in regular business administration courses.

2.2 Business Situations

The foreign language surveys list more than 200 specific business situations in which a foreign language is needed. They range from attending a meeting and reserving a hotel room to opening a bank account or making a damage claim. This, of course, raises the question of which situations are relevant enough to be taught in a business English course.

Following Piepho's concept of communicative competence, there has been a general trend to include as many situations as possible in foreign language textbooks. However, some of the situations given are quickly outdated and also tend to be so specific that the students aren't able to see the "business" forest for looking at the "situational" trees.

Also, it is methodologically not possible to teach all situations that a student might face later on the job. Trying to do this would be comparable to - in a finance class - having a student calculate all depreciation rates (declining balance and straight line) for all possible equipment - hoping that in his/her job he/she will later make less mistakes since he/she has already been through the situation once.

Thus we have to ask ourselves whether the future manager will more likely be faced with the situation of having to write an offer letter (which a competent secretary can easily handle anyway) or whether he or she may be expected to make a presentation on the market share of tennis shoes in front of the board.

With these considerations in mind we suggest that the list of situations given in the German company surveys above needs to be reduced down to a selected number of typical relevant situations. The selection should be made on the basis of generality, relevance and authenticity. In other words: Situational teaching - yes, but in moderation. Subject matter needs to be given a more important role in a business English program.

2.3 Language Skills

This brings us to our third theoretical question, namely whether there is any combination of skills - listening, speaking, reading and writing - that should have priority over others.

According to the 1984 Giessen survey (Christ,H./Schwarze, A. 1985), most companies need more oral skills than written correspondence. Not correspondence, but interactive oral skills should be the core of business language courses. (Christ, H./Schwarze, A. 1985:89). This then shows a great imbalance between actual practical needs, namely oral communication and the general practice of teaching writing skills, which usually means commercial correspondence.

In attempting to answer our third theoretical question - that is the combination of skills to be taught - we can say that business English courses should stress oral skills and train to using a combination of skills, like hearing and writing, which is required when attending a meeting, for instance, or hearing and speaking and writing skills, which is required when preparing and making a presentation or reacting to the questions in a discussion.

To recapitulate the theoretical aspect:

On the basis of the mentioned regional investigations into the foreign language needs of German companies, three principles that a business English program should incorporate can be identified:

(1) a general orientation towards the profile of the business manager - with only limited specialized course work.

(2) a moderate orientation towards typical interactive business situations - which do not obscure the view of the business subject matter content.

(3) a stronger orientation towards oral communication - however, not to be taught in isolation and not just in day-to-day "situations". Rather, a combination of skills in both formal and informal environments should be emphasized.

With these basic principles in mind, I would now like to introduce the concept of

3.0 INTERACTIVE BUSINESS COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH.

It consists of three interrelated components as you can see in Figure 1:

3.1. A LANGUAGE COMPONENT

- which is based on the concept that the traditional skills of
  - listening
  - reading
  - writing and
  - speaking are interrelated

and need to be taught as a complex of communicative functions.

3.2. A BUSINESS COMPONENT

- which is based on the idea that foreign language skills and (native) business subject matter overlap and need to be integrated as far as possible to achieve fast and efficient business language learning.

3.3 AN INTERACTIVE COMPONENT

- which is based on the understanding that language is a form of interaction that goes beyond mere "communicative" skills
- and that interactive language teaching needs to incorporate intercultural aspects in a situational approach.

Before discussing the language and business components some important comments about the INTERACTIVE COMPONENT should be kept in mind:

> Often it is not enough to only "communicate" effectively, but just as important to "ACT" competently in a different culture without necessarily using (verbal) language.

We all know trivial examples of socio-cultural differences in "acting": for instance that it is customary in Greece to nod when you want to say no or that in some Eastern countries white is the color of mourning, not black. The Germans are famous for shaking hands every time they meet, Anglo-saxons usually don't. These different ways to behave or act can cause great confusion to a person who is not aware of the intercultural differences. Let me add two business examples to show how interaction exceeds mere "communication" in a typical business environment: It is not customary in the United States to automatically give an employee who leaves the company what Germans call a "Zeugnis". Thus instead of presenting written "Zeugnisse" with an application, you will usually list two or three references who can attest to your job performance. If you are aware of this cultural difference, you will act differently: if you are leaving employment with a US firm, you would probably not ask for a written reference. And, on the other hand, if you're a German employer, you would not expect a potential employee to present a "Zeugnis" for a period of employment in the United States. Or: It is not common practice to attach a photograph to a resume with a job application in the United States. In Germany, however, this is standard practice - you would not send a job application without attaching a passport photograph of yourself as a means of identification.

As you can see, you may ACT differently in different

Figure 2

WIRTSCHAFTSENGLISCH
TYPISCHE SPRACHVERWENDUNGSSITUATIONEN FÜR BETRIEBSWIRTE
(TENTATIVE AUFSTELLUNG)

GEFORDERTE FERTIGKEITEN HANDLUNGSSITUATION	LESEN	HÖREN	SCHREIBEN	SPRECHEN
1 BERUFSANTRITT/ARBEITSPLATZWECHSEL				
- Grundlegende Kenntnisse über Organisation u. Geschäftstätigkeit d. Unternehmens	X	X		
- Stellenausschreibungen	X			
- Bewerbungen			X	
- Vorstellungsgespräch		X		X
- Annahme/Ablehnung einer Position	X		X	
2 TAGESGESCHEHEN IM UNTERNEHMEN				
- Routineabläufe	X	X		X
- Positionsbezeichnungen	X	X		X
- Telefongespräche (führen, weitergeben)		X		X
- wichtige Formulare u. Abkürzungen (Rechnungen, Anträge, Reiseabrechnungen)	X		X	
- allgemeine Geschäftskorrespondenz (Standardanfragen, Angebote, Beschwerden, Klärung v. Sachverhalten)	X		X	
- soziale Interaktionen (Begrüßungen; Besucher betreuen, Gesprächsthemen: soziale, kulturelle, politische, wirtschaftliche)		X		X
3 BESPRECHUNGEN - KONFERENZEN - SEMINARE				
Vorbereitung:				
- Analysenerarbeitung	X		X	
- Grundlagen d. Schriftverkehrs (Rundschreiben, Memos)	X		X	
- Informationsvorbereitung (Exzerpte anfertigen aus verschied. Quellen (Dokumente, Korrespondenz), Meinungen anderer zusammenfassen, Erstellung v. Tabellen u. statist. Material)	X		X	
- Tagesordnung erstellen (Zielsetzung, Prioritäten)	X		X	
Durchführung:				
- Vorsitz führen (Eröffnung d. Sitzung, Steuerung d. Diskussion, Abstimmung, Abschluß)		X		X
- auf Tagesordnung eingehen (Vorschläge machen, unterstützen, infragestellen, klären)		X		X
- verhandeln (Argumente, Gegenargumente, Unterbrechungen, Meinungen einholen)		X		X
- Fachgespräche führen		X		X
- Protokollierung (Notizentechnik)		X	X	
Nacharbeiten:				
- Bearbeitung v. Dokumenten, die auf Sitzung verteilt wurden und d. Notizen d. Protokolls	X		X	
- Dokumentation (Verteilung v. Protokollen; follow-up)	X		X	
4 MITARBEIT/LEITUNG IN PROJEKTEN				
- verschiedene Arten d. Lesens (intensiv/orientierend/kursorisch/aspektbezogen)	X			
- Umgang mit Katalogen, Indices, Standardnachschlagewerken	X			
- Exzerpte aus Lesestoff	X		X	
- Erstellung v. Fragebögen (Interviews, Firmenbesuche)			X	
- Durchführung v. Interviews		X		X
- Abfassen theoriebezogener Berichte, praktischer Abhandlungen und Trends, Zusammenfassungen (mit Hilfe graphischer u. visueller Mittel)	X		X	
- Präsentation - Vorbereitung (Aufbau, graph. Material) - Präsentation d. Ergebnisse, Erklären, Interpretation - Eingehen auf Fragen, Klärung v. Sachverhalten	X	X	X	X

cultural settings - and this acting does not have to take the form of verbal communication. It is very important to integrate these socio-cultural aspects into foreign language teaching in general. Specifically with respect to teaching business English - and keeping in mind the overall objective of INTERACTIVE BUSINESS COMPETENCE - this can best be done within the framework of a business-oriented situational approach. For instance, I have shown here a sample list of typical situations which might be appropriate to include in a college business English or business German program. It is a tentative list and not intended to be final.

FIGURE 2

As you can see the examples I gave earlier about the "Zeugnisse" and photographs with job applications fit into the first situational setting.

Just as learning to handle these situations also involves developing intercultural competence, the teaching of them strengthens the traditional language skills of reading, listening, writing and speaking.

3.1 LANGUAGE COMPONENT

Keeping in mind that the traditional skills need to be taught as a complex of communicative functions, the following aspect needs to be given special attention, namely: that competence in a special language, here business English or German, proceeds from a basis of general German or English knowledge, a so-called "common core" of vocabulary, structures, idioms, or communicative functions, which very often cannot be clearly separated from the language used for specific purposes.

The extent to which "common core" needs to be taught, depends on the level of competence the students have in English. Teaching business English to students who have a high level of "common core" knowledge should complement the objectives for teaching business subject matter in their native language.

Using this integrated approach and taking management as a sample subject matter, INTERACTIVE BUSINESS COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH would involve among other things competence in the

Figure 3

THE LANGUAGE COMPONENT
(EXAMPLES OF LANGUAGE SKILLS)

Key Objective: Interactive Business Competence in English

Component Key Objective **Language**: To use the English language in Management-related activities

Specific Objectives: review, reinforce and extend grammar, idioms, general and specialist vocabulary as well as communicative functions

Examples: (**NOT** to be understood as a complete list)

Activity	Skills (a.o.)	Teaching Methods (a.o.)
Discussing management matters; negotiating; setting priorities	listening, speaking	guided discussion groups, role playing, case studies
Taking notes of board or departmental meetings or seminars; preparing minutes/summaries on the basis of notes	listening, writing	taking notes of seminars and lectures; preparing minutes of seminars; summarizing video plays or films
Preparing management reports or correspondence (memos, circulars)	reading, writing	preparing seminar papers on selected topics; evaluating business literature under certain aspects; extracting information from various documents (annual reports, project reports, correspondence, technical literature)
Making presentations	reading, speaking	presentation of seminar papers; evaluating and presenting business data; researching and presenting topical information; making simulated project presentations

- Depending on the students' level of competence, traditional grammar, idioms, vocabulary and or, communicative instruction needs to be provided.

following combinations of language skills:

FIGURE 3

- discussing and negotiating management matters, which involves at a minimum the skills of listening and speaking and could be taught within (accompanying) seminars. The teaching method could be guided discussions, role playing and the analyzing of case studies;
- taking notes at meetings and preparing minutes from these notes. This involves the skills of listening and writing, and could also take place within the framework of (accompanying seminars), namely in the form of preparing minutes of lectures and seminars;
- preparing management reports or correspondence. This involves at a minimum the language skills of reading and writing and could be taught by researching and presenting business data and extracting and presenting information from various documents (annual reports, project reports, correspondence or technical literature)
- finally, making presentations, which requires the student to use a combination of all language skills: reading and speaking, writing and listening. Ideally again, this could be taught in seminars by presenting simulated project reports or presentations.

These skill combinations should be regarded not as a complete list but as a minimum catalog of language activities/functions that - from a language point of view - the future manager should be able to handle.

3.2 BUSINESS COMPONENT

Here we can begin to see how interactive business competence in a foreign language can be achieved by integrating language and business subjects.

A course in general management for example would consist (as you can see in Figure 4) of lectures in the native language on the management process with accompanying seminars on the management functions of

PLANNING, LEADING, ORGANIZING AND CONTROLLING.

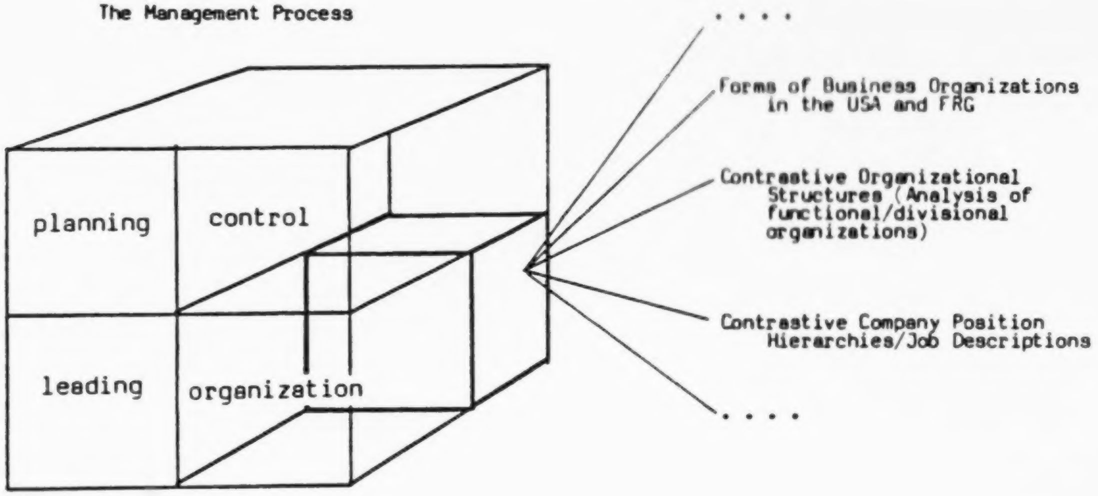
Figure 4

THE BUSINESS COMPONENT
(EXAMPLE OF THEMATIC CONTENT)

Lecture (A)

Accompanying seminars (B)

The Management Process


planning
control
leading
organization
. . . .
Forms of Business Organizations in the USA and FRG
Contrastive Organizational Structures (Analysis of functional/divisional organizations)
Contrastive Company Position Hierarchies/Job Descriptions
. . . .

0. **Key Objective:** Interactive Business Competence in English

1. Component Key Objective **Business:** Understanding the Basics of the Management Process

1.1 Specific Objective (A)

introduce/reinforce the four major functions
- management planning
- management leading
- management organization
- management control

Method:

50% lecture; 50% discussion

1.2 Specific Objective (B)

introduce/reinforce contrastive, country-specific aspects, e.g. company structure/position hierarchies/job descriptions

Method:

Seminar, active participation on the part of the students

basic: research factual data; short presentations in class

intermediate: interpret and discuss differences with reference to topical events

advanced: role playing; project presentations; case studies

The seminars would deal with contrastive aspects, i.e. those that stress phenomena or conventions that are different in the countries under comparison.

For example, within management LEADING, different motivational theories could be covered IN THE LECTURE, and country-specific motivators, like for example top executive benefits could be compared IN THE SEMINAR. In a seminar supplementing the CONTROLLING function, the students could compare different formats of the balance sheet or the income statement in Germany and the US. For the last function, management ORGANIZING, Figure 4 shows in more detail some possible seminar topics that would accompany the lecture, for example forms of business organization in the US and Germany or position hierarchies and job descriptions.

The latter topic is particularly interesting with regard to top management positions. Here, the Anglo-saxon one-level board system could be contrasted with the German two-level Aufsichtsrat- and Vorstand system and the students would learn to cope with the wide array of top positions in the US, ranging from chairman of the board, chief executive officer, chief operating officer, executive vice president, senior vice president or group presidents compared to the formal positions of Aufsichtsrats- und Vorstandsvorsitzender in Germany. These seminars would actively involve the students with authentic foreign language business literature by requiring them to:

(1) compare parallel texts, i.e. the German Aktiengesetz with regard to the Aufsichtsrat/Vorstand positions or standard reference books in the United States, like the AMA's Manual of position descriptions.

(2) compare job advertisements in German or US business magazines, or evaluate the international appointments column in the Financial Times.

(3) consult parallel German-English texts like the Harvard business review and the German Harvard Manager.

(4) research annual reports of American and German corporations.

The key to achieving interactive business competence in a foreign language is that the foreign language is taught through business.

In summary one can say:

(1) Business language courses need to be oriented towards the roles that the students will later assume in their jobs. In the case of business graduates the goal should be to prepare them for their roles as future managers. This requires more stress on general business matters and less on specifics like correspondence.

(2) The teaching methods in business language courses should make use of a business-related situational approach, incorporating the intercultural aspect while also strengthening the students abilities in business content matter and language skill combinations. This instruction should also place more emphasis on oral communication - including formal oral presentations - which foreign language surveys have found to be a more important requirement.

(3) The overall goal of these programs should be to prepare the students to interact competently in English in their roles as managers. This implies, of course, a mastery of all language skills - reading, writing, listening and speaking. But that alone is not enough: it also requires intercultural competence in dealing with business situations and can best be achieved by using a comparative approach that focuses on country-specific differences and integrates English with business subject matter.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Dr. Heidrun E. Gerzymisch-Arbogast

Dr. Heidrun Gerzymisch-Arbogast was born and educated in Germany. In 1969 she received a degree in translation (Diplom-Übersetzer) with a minor in Economics from the University of Heidelberg. In 1976 she earned a B.A. in International Business Administration from Schiller College, London. In 1986 she was awarded a Doctorate in English by the University of Mainz for her dissertation on the text structures of American business texts.

From 1969 to 1974 Dr.Gerzymisch-Arbogast was employed as a translator and taught in-house business English courses (until 1981). From 1974 to 1976 she managed the international transportation business owned by her family. From 1976 until 1981 she worked as a free-lance translator specializing in business translations, taught English Business Administration courses at Schiller College, and lectured part-time in Translation at the University of Heidelberg. From 1981 until 1987 she was a full-time lecturer of Translation and English for Special Purposes (Economics and Business) at the University of Heidelberg. In 1987 she accepted a position as Associate Professor for Translation and Interpretation at the Monterey Institute of International Studies, Monterey, California.

Dr. Gerzymisch Arbogast has published in the fields of linguistics, translation, special languages and terminology.

IX. BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPANISH

BUSINESS SPANISH: ROLE PLAYING FOR ORAL PROFICIENCY

by

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Business Spanish: Role Playing for Oral Proficiency

Professor Kenneth Chastain at the University of Virginia used to impress upon his students of Spanish that "You only learn to do what you do." If one wanted to learn how to understand, speak, read and write Spanish, then there was no effective substitute for actually engaging in those language-learning activities. The learning was in the doing. If we apply this important pedagogical notion to those who would learn to speak Spanish (or any other foreign language) for business purposes, the key to effective learning would be that they practice using the language in the target contexts: the survival, social and professional/technical situations one encounters or is liable to encounter in one form or another in the Spanish-speaking or bilingual business world. One effective way to help prepare students of Business Spanish for successful and confident performance in the real world is to borrow a device implemented and formalized by the ACTFL-ETS oral proficiency interview model--the situation card.

In the oral proficiency interview model the situation card "encourages speech production in a real-life situation" and it "is flexible. It can be made very simple or relatively complex, depending on the level of the candidate" (ETS, 88). For the student of Business Spanish (or of any other target language for business needs), the situation card can help to measure what he or she is able or unable to do in business situations in that language. As a result, the model provides the student with its distinctive linguistic-topographic map (peaks and valleys, floors and ceilings) which indicates the student's "ability to function in specified contexts with suitable content and accuracy" (ETS, 21). The linguistic-topographic map, which can be produced visually from the student's tape-recorded performance, specifies the particulars of grammar, vocabulary and fluency that the student still needs to work on, as opposed to any vague recommendations that improvement is needed in one or more of these areas (i.e., that the student simply needs to work on his fluency).

Within the formalized functional trisection (context, function, accuracy) of the oral proficiency interview model, the context I am interested in is that of business. And within this broad arena called business, the situation cards will specify more discrete subcontexts related to various areas and situations associated with doing or talking about business. The cards will be used with students at the Intermediate, Advanced and Superior levels. At the Intermediate level, in keeping with the parameters prescribed by the oral proficiency model, the student should be tested by the situation card on how well he can negotiate a (business) scenario in the present tense where the role play will require that he create sentences and ask questions. At the Advanced level the present tense ideally will be expanded to include the past and/or future tenses, and individual sentences will be combined into paragraphs which demonstrate the student's ability to narrate or describe in detail. At this level the scenario adds a complication to the role play. At the Superior level the ability to hypothesize (the conditional, the subjunctive) is included, and the scenario should test the student's ability to support an opinion with a broad, appropriate use of vocabulary, register and tone (language tailored "to suit the audience," ETS, Appendix VIII, 34) without any pattern of errors.

Under the general parameters of the oral proficiency interview model summarized above, a pool of Business Spanish situation cards can be adapted to reflect and enhance any aspect of the course content, from Accounting to Finance to Real Estate, from hiring and firing to sales and promotion. The cards serve to reinforce the target vocabulary of the different fields of business being taught, and the scenarios they can suggest are a reminder that the specialized terminology introduced in a text in class is also used in the real world of people doing business face to face or over the phone. The cards also provide an element of spontaneity that requires and develops a certain flexibility on the part of the student since, as in real life, he or she does not necessarily have complete control over the direction or outcome of the situation, nor perhaps of the language of the situation (where flexibility is demonstrated by the ability to circumlocute). Since I am interested in having my students rehearse for types of situations that do occur in the real world of business, I try to make the range of the card scenarios broad enough to include variations of predictable survival, social and professional/technical situations.

In order to maximize the benefits of using the situation card in a Business Spanish class, my own experience has led me to agree with the ETS´s "Note on Situations" (91) which prescribes that "It is usually more efficient to present the situations in English, since the tester does not risk giving away vocabulary or constructions" in the target language. The cards can be used on a regular basis, perhaps for six to ten minutes at the end of each class or every other class. This allows the students to become familiar and comfortable with the card routine, and it also provides them with what (ideally) evolves into an anticipated, relaxed, spontaneous and fun way of reinforcing the material they are learning. The individual´s performance in a given scenario in class should be tape-recorded so that he can review and assess his own effectiveness in terms of context, function and accuracy. It is very useful to make two copies of the tape. One I keep, the other is given to the student who will "grade" is own performance at home. The student then comes by my office and we replay the tape together while we conduct a running commentary on what we hear, using the pause button to enable us to criticize in a timely manner weaknesses in content, vocabulary, and grammatical expression, as well as accent and style. Generally it is better to cover only as many as two levels of a situation--either Intermediate to Advanced, or Advanced to Superior. To try and run the situation from Intermediate through Superior is too time consuming, which results in lost interest and effectiveness. It is also beneficial to use realia as a prop for the situation card in an attempt to match as closely as possible what the scenario would entail in the real world. If the scenario is about a phone purchase, then bring real telephones into class for the students to use rather than have them imagine or make believe that they are on the phone.

The following are examples of situation cards or situation card formats that I have used and intend to develop for further use in courses on Business Spanish. The first three scenarios (travel, lodging, dining) are ACTFL-ETS situation cards that have been modified slightly such that the context applies to business. The second group of scenarios (hiring, business organization in the United States, purchasing, advertising) represents an adaptation of the ACTFL-ETS model to more specific business themes and situations. The procedure is that in class a card is handed to a student who then reads the description of the scenario out loud in English. The scenario is then acted out in Spanish (or the target language). Initially the student's counterpart (helper or adversary) is played by the professor. Later this may be done also by another student so that as many students as possible are involved in the exercise. After the opening scenario (either Intermediate or Advanced level) is completed, the first student may either continue with the next, more difficult level of the situation (Advanced or Superior) or he may delegate his role to another student, again involving more learners in the drill. The same scenario, such as a business trip to Barcelona, can be enacted at the Intermediate, Advanced or Superior levels, with each higher level demanding more from the student in terms of context, function and accuracy. The crucial role of the counterpart is to challenge the student at each level so that what he is able to do in the language in a given business situation is confirmed and what he cannot do is made equally clear as an area in which further work is required. By studying his own performance on tape, the student is in an excellent position to measurably improve his oral proficiency in Spanish in a situation type drawn from the real world of business.

TRAVEL.

Intermediate level

You have to make a business trip to Barcelona. Call a travel agent and ask:

1. The best mode of transportation.
2. How long it takes.
3. How much it costs.
4. When you can depart.

Book flight 1866 and ask the agent the best way to get to the airport.

Advanced level

You got held up in traffic and missed your flight. At the airport ticket counter:

1. Explain that you left home early enough to reach the airport but... Describe some of your effort to arrive on time.
2. Ask about other departures.
3. Argue that tomorrow will be too late for your business meeting.
4. Agree to wait and see what happens as a standby passenger on the last flight of the day, Number 1723.

Superior level

You are finally on board your flight from Málaga to Barcelona. Strike up a conversation with the passenger next to you. Ask if he travels often and what mode of transportation he prefers. State and justify your own preference for air travel, despite the hassles of missing a flight yesterday.

LODGING.

Intermediate level

You are checking into a hotel. Ask about:

1. The price of a single room, preferably on the top floor away from traffic noise.
2. Corporate discount rates.
3. Paying for the room with a credit card.
4. Check-out time.
5. Having a suit dry-cleaned.

Advanced level

Call the hotel switchboard. Inform them that:

1. There are no towels or wash cloths.
2. The light bulb over the desk is burned out and you need it replaced so you can work on a sales report.
3. You will need a wake-up call at 7:10 a.m.

Ask if anybody has left any messages. You were expecting some clients to call earlier. Tell them that if anybody calls, you will be in the dining room.

Superior level

You are talking to a fellow salesperson about the woes of business travel. Comment on a recent bad experience you had with lodging at a medium-priced hotel. Go into detail about some of the things that went wrong. Argue that the only way to travel is first class and that the extra cost of lodging is justifiable in terms of employee satisfaction.

DINING.

Intermediate level

You will be taking an important client out to dinner at an expensive restaurant.

1. Call and make reservations (table for five under the name González).
2. Ask for a quiet table near the back patio on the second floor.
3. Make the reservation for an appropriate hour (will vary according to country).
4. Confirm that there is a dress code and ask about parking.

Advanced level

You are at an expensive restaurant with an important client from Mexico.

1. Ask your guest how his travel was earlier that day (good flight, etc.).
2. Ask how his family is doing (wife and children whom you met last year).
3. Ask if he received the documents and receipts you sent him. Detail what they were about.
4. Ask if your guest has enjoyed his meal (specify what he ordered) and suggest the dessert for which the establishment is famous.

Superior level

You are trying to have a conversation with an important client in an expensive restaurant. You had requested a quiet table so that you would be able to talk about a business deal. The table next to you is celebrating a retirement party. It is becoming loud and offensive. You have already asked the manager for help, but he has done nothing. Excuse yourself for a moment and address the increasingly boisterous group next to you. Convince them to change their behavior.

HIRING.

Intermediate level

You call an employment agency.

1. Explain that you need a bilingual salesperson.
2. You want someone with experience and references.
3. The person must know the city well.
4. He or she must also be willing to travel.

Advanced level

An employment agency has sent you a person in answer to your ad for a bilingual salesperson.

1. Ask how she found out about the job.
2. Ask about her previous work experience and references.
3. Ask why she left the company where she was working before.
4. Describe what the position will involve: travel, long hours, a variety of products.

Superior level

You are about to hire a bilingual salesperson.

1. Negotiate the salary of this new employee.
2. Describe the commissions, perks, and bonuses.
3. Explain your employee benefits program.
4. Summarize your sales goals for the coming year.
5. Favorably compare your products to those of your top competitor and support your belief that yours are superior.

BUSINESS ORGANIZATION IN THE U.S.A.

Intermediate level

A visitor asks you about the forms of business organization in the United States. You answer that:

1. There are public and private enterprises.
2. There are profit and non-profit organizations.
3. There are, generally speaking, sole proprietorships, partnerships, and corporations.

Advanced level

Your visitor from ________ would like to know more about how businesses are organized in the United States. Explain how:

1. A sole proprietorship functions.
2. A partnership functions.
3. A corporation functions.

Ask if your visitor will be available tomorrow for a tour of your company. Arrange for the visit.

Superior level

Your visitor from ________ has some reservations about the way business is done in the United States. He sees capitalism and free enterprise as exploitative and outdated. Diplomatically defend the notions of capitalism and free markets, as opposed to other more controlled economies.

PURCHASING.

Intermediate level

You are on the phone with an office supply wholesaler.

1. Place an order for five or six items (Paper clips, staples, typewriter ribbons, correcting fluid, etc.).
2. It is Monday. Have the order delivered by 10 a.m. Wednesday.
3. Have the order billed to your account.

Advanced level

You are still on the phone with the office supply wholesaler.

1. Order the adding machine, electric typewriter, and dictating machines you need by 10 a.m. Wednesday.
2. Ask about ordering business cards. Describe what you want on the cards and place your order.
3. Ask if the computer parts you ordered last week have arrived. Try and get a firm estimate of when they will arrive.

Superior level

Your office supply order has just been delivered COD. Call the wholesaler to complain that you wanted to charge the order to your account. Also, part of what you ordered did not arrive and some of the items delivered were incorrect (the typewriter ribbons do not match the typewriters, etc.). Have the wholesaler provide an immediate solution to the problems. Remind him that this is not the first time this has happened.

ADVERTISING.

Intermediate level

You call a magazine to speak to the Advertising Sales Manager.

1. Inform him or her that you want to purchase space to advertise your new product for the next six weekly issues.
2. Ask for the rates (1/4-page, 1/2-page, full-page ads).
3. Make an appointment to meet next Tuesday in order to discuss the matter further.

Advanced level

You are meeting with the Advertising Sales Manager of a magazine.

1. Confirm the prices quoted to you over the phone last week.
2. Describe your new product and an advertising layout you had in mind.
3. Ask how many readers will see the ad and what impact it can be expected to have on sales.
4. Ask about methods of payment for the ad.

Superior level

You have taken out a full-page ad for your new product in an expensive magazine. You are disappointed with the design and layout (you thought it would appear near the front, which you had agreed on verbally). You have also overheard friends and colleagues criticizing the ad. Sales have dropped rather than increased. Demand an explanation from the Advertising Sales manager and suggest solutions to the problem.

In conclusion, situation cards can be adapted to any expected (a forthcoming business trip) or potential scenario in the world of business. The cards help students of Business Spanish to build verbal mastery and confidence by providing them training for negotiating their way through topics or situations for which they have been equipped in class only grammatically and lexically. At the same time, the cards help to indicate the real functional level of general and discrete (more specialized terminology) Business Spanish proficiency. Ultimately, role playing for oral proficiency can help to provide measurable linguistic (and cultural) practice and preparation for the real world of doing business in Spanish or any other target language. This can only be good for American business as the United States begins to act on its growing awareness that the best language for doing business is the language of the client.

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APPLYING A PROFIENCY ORIENTED METHODOLOGY TO THE INTERMEDIATE BUSINESS SPANISH CLASS

by

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Applying a Proficiency Oriented Methodology to the Intermediate Business Spanish Class

According to ACTFL/ETS there are three principles of communicative proficiency: function, content, and accuracy. In order to achieve proficiency students will have to learn the language in realistic contexts (function), focus on topics which relate to their lives and interest (content), and practice those aspects of grammar and pronunciation that will help them to be understood by native speakers of Spanish (accuracy). Grammar is seen now not as an end in itself but as a means of accomplishing a communicative function.

Proficiency not only relates to speaking but also to the skills of understanding, reading, and writing. The teacher will take care of selecting the appropriate materials surrounding real life topics or situations and also the tools needed to facilate their expression. In the syllabus and curriculum planning the students level will be an important factor with the final goal being to enable them to use the foreign language in real life situations.

The Natural Approach developed by Tracy Terrell (1982) and adapted from the Direct Method is at the present time the most familiar proficiency-oriented method. In this method there is no need for the student to master a grammatical point before moving on, and material which will help him function in the target language culture is spiralled throughout the text. Also, some of this material is presented with the sole purpose of simple recognition by the students. The Natural Approach emphasizes that "immediate communicative competency (not grammatical perfection) be the goal of beginning language instruction. Students are provided natural acquisition opportunities rather than formal learning opportunities through the use of comprehensible input as the medium of instruction in the classroom. Any formal learning is relegated to homework and out-of-class practice". In this method it is very crucial that the teacher creates a non-judgemental, accepting atmosphere in the classroom which will help to increase the students creativity and lower their anxiety. Correction is only done indirectly by re-phrasing students incorrect statements although overt correction is done on the written work. New vocabulary is presented always in context and in relation with the unit theme.

In the Natural Approach correct speech and grammar are not stressed. On the contrary, most of the classroom activities are based on the actual use of the target language. Typical activities of a Natural Approach class will be extensive pair interaction in which the students themselves ask each other questions, match vocabulary items to their definitions, converse in the situational set ups, perform original dialogues, and discuss tapes. Comprehension always precedes production (Caminero, White, 1987).

Terrell (1977, 1902) bases his Natural Approach in Kreshen theory of second language acquisition. A brief summary to kreshen principles of adult second language acquisition can better illustrate other aspects of the origins of this proficiency approach:

1) Acquisition/Learning distinction: Kreshen considers acquisition to be a subconsious process not unlike that of children in acquiring their first language, while learning is a conscious process involving the learning of grammar rules and their application.

2) Natural order hypothesis: It is believed that there is a predictable order for acquisition of grammatical structures. It is not yet known what that order is, however, implications for this includes a

more non-critical accptance of error in speech, since it is believed that students will acquire what they are ready to acquire when they are cognitively able. Thus, the order of acquisition may differ from the order of learning. Therefore, students need varied, simplified, yet rich input providing a variety of structures from which they will extract those which they are ready to acquire. Spiralling occurs automatically as the instructor uses diverse structures repeatedly in teacher conversation.

3) Monitor hyopthesis: While acquisition is the sole factor responsible for fluency and spontaneous second language production, learning acts as a 'monitor' or editor of this output. This monitor functions when the focus of an activity is on form and the learner knows the rule being applied.

4) Input hypothesis: Acquisition only occurs when the learners are exposed in the teacher conversation to comprehensible input with structures slightly beyond their level. This situation is expressed as y + 1. Compreshension occurs through context and extraliquistic factors. Such optional conditions foster good listening strategies on the part of students, since they are able to comprehend most of what is said and learn to use these factors in comprehending the speaker's message.

5) Affective filter: The acquirer must: a) be motivated, b) have self-confidence and good self-image, and c) have a low level of anxiety in the classroom. Otherwise the affective filter remains at a high level and comprehensible input cannot get in (Omaggio, 1983).

It is evident that the Kreshen hypothesis has many implications for the foreign language class. The teacher's main function is to provide the students with comprehensible input in a low-stress atmosphere. Error correction is almost non-existant when the goal of an activity is acquisition, since such intervention raises the student's affective filter. Students will produce in the target language when they are ready.

and speech will emerge naturally. Optimal input, sometimes with structures slighly beyond the students level,must be comprehensible, interesting, and relevant to learners, not gramatically sequenced.

Terrell provides the following definition for intermediate level students: An intermediate student is one that "can understand the essential points of what a native speaker says to him in a real communicative situation and can respond in such a way that the native speaker interprets the response with little or no effect and without errors that are so distracting that they interfere dractically with communication..."

Adapting this definition to that of a business Spanish student at the intermediate level it can be said that an intermediate business Spanish student is one that is able to understand the essential business points of what a native says to him in a real communicative business situation or transaction responding in such a way within the business context that native speakers are able to comprehend him or her without major difficulty.

In a Natural Approach language class, communication is more important than form in beginning and intermediate levels of instruction. And must, if not all, classroom activities, should be designed to evoke communication. Terrell suggests that the entire class period be devoted to communication activities. All of these activities are highly contextualized and personalized. Terrell (1982) points out that "a low-anxiety situation can be created by involving the students personally in class activities... The goal is that the members of the group become genuinely interested in each others opinion, feelings, and interests and feel comfortable expressing themselves on the topics of discussion" (p. 124).

In a Natural Approach business Spanish class for intermediate students then, must of the classroom activities will be designed to produce business communication. In such a class most of the time would be devoted to business communicative activities which should relate to the students special business interests and which will focus mainly on the students acquisition of the new business vocabulary.

Terrell (1982) points out that the three types of acquisition activities are:

1) Comprehension (preproduction) activities which consist of listening, comprehension practice, with no requirement for students to speak in the target language. Comprehension is achieved by contextual guessing, TPR Techniques, the use of gestures and visual aids, and data gleaned from personalized student input.

In an intermediate business Spanish class this means that the teacher will introduce business vocabulary always in a commercial setting and related to a particular topic or chapter which is of interest to the students. This could be done by means of dialogues and readings in which normal, but fairly formal language is used since this is the language characteristic of the Spanish business world. Dialogues and readings can be presented by teachers at the beginning of each lesson introducing a different topic. They can be followed by choral repetition of the students. Afterwards, the students can be divided into pairs or small groups and play the roles as they read the parts aloud. At this stage students can be allowed to use their native language since according to Terrell, at the beginning, production on their part is not yet expected.

In a business Spanish class of this level after the vocabulary is introduced in the above manner it could be organized into nouns, adjectives, and other espressions so that students pay attention to the grammatical function of the word as well as to its meaning. Another technique that gives good results with the new vocabulary is to group the related forms of one basic semantic family such as _invertir_, _inversion_, _inversionista_, etc. Such a technique could be used either for recognition or as an effective review.

2) _Early speech production_ will occur once students have a recognition of the vocabulary. Production activities begin with questions requiring only simple word answers or with either/or questions with alternatives provided.

In a business Spanish class questions can be related to the vocabulary introduced in the dialogues and readings which were given in the pre-production stage. At this stage the activities will be done with limited usage and in controlled situations. What the teacher has to keep in mind is that at this point he or she is only helping students to prepare for the more open-ended communication activities that will come later on in the lesson.

3) _Speech emergence_ occurs after the early speech production phase and its encouraged through the use of games, humanistic-affective activities, and information and problem solving activities. It is very important that the students relax during these activities and concentrate on the main idea of the conversation. Students should be permitted to look over an activity before doing it in class if they prefer to do so.

In a business Spanish class the activities will be based solely on the business information presented either in the lesson or in previous lessons. Business students will concentrate more on the business topic being currently discussed rather than the fact that Spanish is being spoken since according to the Natural Approach, acquisition of the new material will only take place if the student is not focussed on learning Spanish but rather on using Spanish to be able to talk about business or in business contexts. It is extremely important that during the phase of the lesson the students are relaxed and concentrate on the main idea of the conversation. Their attention should be diverted from their mistakes since as their listening skills improve they will be making less and less mistakes.

Oral activities should be done within the small group format which will provide a realistic simulation of real business situations since in this setting students will be able to communicate effectively. As soon as they find themselves ready the students will use the newly learned vocabulary in the oral activities done within the classroom. In a business Spanish class for intermediate students the following activities, among others, could be included:

1) Role-Playings. Students are given a situational context and statements in their native language which can be acted out in Spanish by one or more of them. This activity could be used to comment on relevant aspects of Hispanic cultures, linking this way the study of culture to the study of business. In relation to culture is also a good idea to encourage students to discuss preferably in Spanish how Hispanics and Anglos perceive each other cultures.

2) Conversations. In here two or more students converse either in small groups or in front of the class. The students make up short dialogues based on business situations given in the particular lesson. These conversations will be based on the vocabulary they have previously learned.

3) Interviews. This activity often involves two students: one asking the questions, the other answering. The interviewer takes notes on the answer of the interviewee. Students than can switch roles and follow the same procedure. In the follow up, students are asked to give the class information on the person interviewed. This information should be presented in the narrative form, with the teacher only intervening to clarify or specify (this activity goes very well with the topic of job interviewing in a Spanish country).

4) Newspaper ads. Newspaper ads serve to develop scanning skills and, particularly, in the speech-production stage, as a point of departure for comprehensible input and oral interaction. The teacher can introduce each ad asking questions that require the students to scan the ad for information: What is the name of the bank? What is the address? What types of bank accounts it offers? etc. The teacher can comment and explain new words and then have the students do the interaction or answer questions previously given to them in pairs.

5) Round Table. This activity often involves 3 to 5 students in role playing and requires longer and more formal statements from them. Its objective is to increase the students linguistic and business skills and to illustrate the way in which professions behave during public service or participate in some socialized activities. This exercise is more effective if the other students in the class listen critically and later ask questions or make comments to the students in front of the class at the end of the formal presentation.

6) Lecturers. Special guest speakers can be invited to conduct an informal lecture in relation to a particular topic being discussed. The lecture should be conducted in Spanish and can be in a level above the

students intermediate level. Afterwards, the students can ask questions to the lecturer. It is a good idea to have the students prepare in advance for the particular lecture by having them review at home the topic to be discussed. This activity can be done for both recognition and reinforcement of the vocabulary. For homework the teacher can ask the students to write a short composition on the lecturer's presentation, thus integrating the developing of the writing skills to the developing of the other skills of listening, speaking and reading.

The reading and writing skills are also given a place in the Natural Approach classroom. In connection with the business Spanish, reading and writing activities are used both as acquistion activities and learning activities.

1) Reading Activities. In the Natural Approach reading is seen as a skill that can help students acquire and learn Spanish. There are four reading skills that the students have in English and that they can transfer to Spanish: scanning, skimming, intensive reading, and extenstive reading.

Scanning is searching for a particular information. In a business Spanish class a student can scan (as we have seen before) newspapers and magazine articles for items of interest related to the topic being discussed.

Skimming is getting an overview of the main ideas in a reading. In a business Spanish class students can skim a newspaper, magazine article or reading selection about a particular business problem.

Intensive Reading is what a student does when he/she is studying. Some selected business readings can be read intensively by students in order to be able later on to guess at the meaning of words that they do not understand.

Extensive Reading skills are used for most reading purposes. In these readings students do not study the materials, but they will be able to understand main ideas and most of the context. In a business Spanish class the four types of reading skills will be practiced during the course. Some additional and more complex readings may be assigned for extensive reading or for global understanding.

2) Writing activities. Most writing activities should be done outside the class and for homework. One writing activitiy which usually gives good results is to have the student write first a short composition in preparation for an oral presentation before the class. The teacher then can either correct the errors or simply circle them (in this case the students are responsible to correct their mistake). Writing activities may include business letters, reports on a particular business problem, short compositions on either a personal experience that the student may have had in doing business or supporting an opinion on a particular business topic. Other types of writing activities could be: a) to ask the students to use the newly learned vocabulary words by writing sentences with them that illustrate their meaning; b) to have the students examine business letters with underlined business terms that they previously have learned and have them rewrite the letters this time using the synonims of the underlined words; and c) to ask students to complete sentences using the appropriate form of the listed words.

Although Terrell does not advocate translation in his Natural Approach in a business Spanish class for intermediate students translations can be used sporadically to clarify meanings of complex business terms or institutions not familiar to the American culture. One such activity involving translation which lends itself to the business

Spanish class is interpretation. This exercise usually includes three students and can be done in front of the class or in groups. One person speaks only Spanish; the second speaks only English; and the third (the interpreter) speaks both Spanish and English. The activity usually starts in Spanish when a potential client explains to an interpreter a situation or problem. The interpreter than relates this information in English to the third person involved.

It should be pointed out that some new material can be introduced in each lesson only for comprehension purposes through reading, tape recordings and teacher conversation in order to help students prepare for later lessons and for more advanced business Spanish courses. Also, the most useful and important business vocabulary terms will be practice all through the course so that at the end of the semester or quarter, students have acquired a complete understanding of them and can actively use them correctly in business transactions.

CONCLUSION

We have seen that the goal of a proficiency oriented method such as the Natural Approach is to equipe students with the necessary language skills that will enable them to survive in a foreign country. Business survival skills should be the objective of any introductory business Spanish course for students at the intermediate level, so it stands to reason that we can use this method also in such a class. The only difference will be that in the business class the emphasis is on survival business skills rather than in just survival skills. To survive in a business world in a Hispanic culture means to be able to , among other things, open a bank account, apply for a job, buy or rent a house, have basic knowledge of simple business transactions, etc. By properly using the acquisition and learning activities described on The Natural Approach and adapting them to the business Spanish syllabus we can obtain, with success most of our expectations for such a class.

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A Model Program
for
International Commerce Education

a paper prepared for presentation at

The Seventh Annual Conference
on Languages and Communication
for World Business and the Professions

by

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San Diego State University

A MODEL PROGRAM FOR INTERNATIONAL COMMERCE EDUCATION

ABSTRACT

To address our economy's growing reliance on international business, San Diego State University has recently introduced a program in international commerce. This program was developed by packaging coursework in three existing areas: business administration, language training, and area studies. Although still in its infancy, the international commerce program has already proven itself popular with students seeking careers in international business.

The university is now developing a more comprehensive approach to international commerce training. The curriculum is structured around several innovative modules. Students will begin the program in a target language immersion environment. Participants will live together in a dormitory where all communication will be limited to the target language. For the first year of the program, this language will be Spanish. During subsequent years, students will take coursework in area studies and business in the target language in order to reinforce the language skills they develop in their freshman year. Later in the program, students spend one semester abroad and participate in a business internship to provide an opportunity to apply the skills developed in the international commerce curriculum.

We believe that this program will produce a unique and highly qualified breed of manager for the future. Graduates

of the program will have language skills, an understanding of the cultural environment, as well as traditional business skills. It is our belief that this type of manager is sorely needed to help restore American competitiveness in the global economy.

American businesses are making a dramatic transition from competing in a domestic and closed economy to competing internationally in an increasingly globalized marketplace. This adaptation has been slow, however. Many of the problems encountered in effecting this transition have been attributed to traditional American management style. U.S. managers are often characterized as ethnocentric and uncompromising when dealing with foreigners.

One of the reasons for American managerial inflexibility is the approach to "international" business education used at most U.S. universities. International business is taught as an independent discipline. Little attempt is made to integrate international business programs into a broader economic and societal context.

To address our economy's growing reliance on international business, San Diego State University (SDSU) has recently introduced a program in international commerce. This program was developed by repackaging existing coursework in three areas: business administration, language training, and area studies. Although still in its infancy, SDSU's international commerce program has already proven itself popular with students seeking careers in international business.

The international commerce program is currently being offered as a Liberal Studies Option I major with the A.B. Degree in Liberal Arts and Sciences. The first major declared in April 1986. There are currently 83 declared majors.

The liberal studies international commerce major was introduced as a result of a 1984 survey conducted by the French and Spanish departments at SDSU. The French and Spanish programs discovered that the single largest group of students taking courses in those programs were from the College of Business Administration, even though business students are not subject to the foreign language graduation requirement. This fact, coupled with the fact that foreign language minors are the most popular minors in the university and that business minors are popular among foreign language majors, suggested that a more formalized program in business, foreign language, and area studies was needed.

In order to expedite the implementation of a new program in international commerce, it was decided to introduce the program under the already existing Liberal Studies rubric. (A more complete description of the current Liberal Studies international commerce major is attached as Appendix 1 to this paper.) As noted above, in only two years this option has proven extremely successful. Precisely because of that success, however, San Diego State is now developing a more comprehensive approach to international commerce training.

San Diego State is now introducing a "freestanding" International Commerce Major designed to be an interdisciplinary undergraduate degree program with the majority of course offerings and degree requirements from within SDSU's

College of Arts and Letters. No new department will be created, and the program will be administered through the Dean of the College of Arts and Letters and a faculty committee with representatives from each of the participating departments and programs.

The International Commerce program will allow students to complete a degree with a coordinated set of courses in three fields: area studies, business, and foreign language. This truly interdisciplinary major will provide students with a new and broader liberal education necessary in today's increasingly interconnected global community. Students will select an area of the world other than North America, in which to concentrate (Asia, Europe, or Latin America) and an appropriate second language (Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish), and combine them with a common set of courses in Business (Finance, Management, Marketing). The area studies courses are generally the equivalent of a minor; the foreign language component aims at a competency level that is greater than that acquired in the minor; and the business sequence culminates in three international courses. (Attached as Appendix 2 to this paper is the curriculum proposal for the International Commerce major, which will provide a more detailed description of the program.)

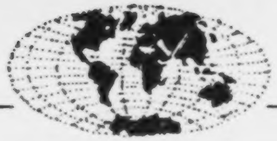
Although many undergraduate institutions offer degree programs that are called international business, none is truly such since none includes significant course work in all three fields: area studies, business, foreign language. Comparable programs at Monterey Institute for International Studies, the American Graduate School of International Management (Thunderbird), University of South Carolina, and the Lauder Institute (Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania) are all graduate programs.

The only comparable undergraduate programs in the entire nation are located at California State University, Fullerton (CSUF), and Eastern Michigan University (EMU), both of which were consulted in developing this new "free-standing" major and both of which have been extremely successful. EMU's program was created in 1979. There are now over 450 majors. Based on the results of an EMU alumni survey in fall 1983, more than 95% of graduates were employed in the business world; approximately 65% obtained immediate, entry-level positions in international operations. CSUF's international business program has over 300 majors in only the fourth year of its implementation. SDSU's program, however, will distinguish itself from the CSUF B.A. in International Business and EMU's B.A. in Language and International Trade by its enhanced area studies component.

Moreover, SDSU's international commerce students who choose French, German, or Spanish may also receive certification of their language skills by the governments of those three countries. SDSU's International Commerce program is singular in that it has already been designated as a testing site for the "Certificat Pratique de Francais Commercial et Economique" granted by the Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris and recognized by the French National Ministry of Education. In spring 1986, eight SDSU students passed that examination and were awarded that certificate. Similar authorization in German from the German-American Chamber of Commerce, the Carl Duisberg Society, and the Goethe Institute, and in Spanish for the "Certificado de Espanol Comercial Basico," from the Chamber of Commerce and the Official School of Languages in Madrid, is expected shortly.

In fact, to enhance its international commerce major, SDSU is also pursuing plans for an intensive language immersion module as part of the program. Students will begin the program in a target language immersion environment. Participants will live together in a dormitory where all communication will be limited to the target language. For the first year of the program, this language will be Spanish. During subsequent years, students will take coursework in area studies and business in the target language in order to reinforce the language skills they develop in their freshman year. Later in the program, students will spend one semester abroad and participate in a business internship to provide an opportunity to apply the skills developed in the international commerce curriculum. (Attached as Appendix 3 to this paper is the prospectus for the Intensive/Immersion Language Project, which will provide a more detailed description of the program.)

We believe that this combination of programs will produce a unique and highly qualified breed of manager for the future. Graduates of the program will have language skills, an understanding of the cultural environment, as well as traditional business skills. It is our belief that this type of manager is sorely needed to help restore American competitiveness in the global economy. For those students who wish to take courses in area studies, business, and foreign language, SDSU's International Commerce major provides an integrated degree program for that purpose. Students completing this major will better understand today's interdependent world and the ways people of different cultures interact socially and economically. By offering this degree program, SDSU will have increased its responsiveness to the needs of the international community as well as increased the preparedness of its students for the proficient and successful practice of a profession. It will also have given concrete recognition to the belief of Peter Drucker, the father of modern management theory, that "management . . . is a liberal art that must draw on all the humanities and all the social sciences." (The Chronicle of Higher Education, February 10, 1988, p. A3.)



Participating programs

College of Arts and Letters

Area Studies
Asian Studies (AH 3172)
Latin American Studies (SS 146)
European Studies (AH 3172)

Foreign Language
French and Italian Languages and Literatures (LE 326)
German and Russian Languages and Literatures (LE 468)
Spanish and Portuguese Languages and Literatures (LE 469)
Classics and Oriental Languages and Literatures (AH 4231)
- * Chinese
- * Hebrew
- * Japanese

College of Business Administration

Accounting

Finance

Management

Marketing

The program is open only to students who have accumulated fewer than 90 units of college level coursework.

For more information contact the College of Arts and Letters (SS 132). 265-6270.

* May be possible; contact the Department Chair of Classical and Oriental Languages and Literatures.

SDSU
College of Arts and Letters
San Diego State University
San Diego, CA 92182

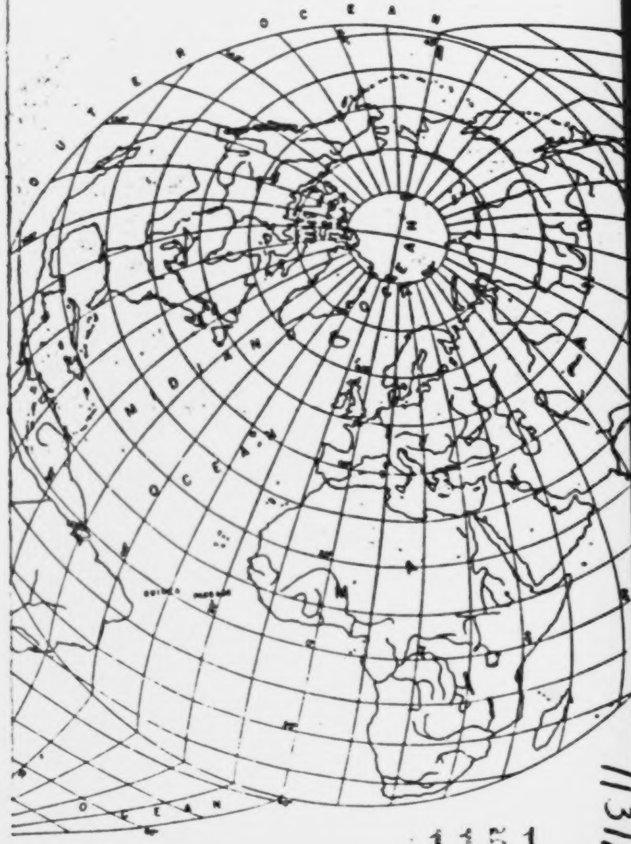
SAN DIEGO STATE UNIVERSITY

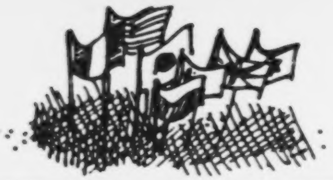
College of Arts and Letters

College of Business Administration

International Commerce

A Liberal Studies Option 1 Degree

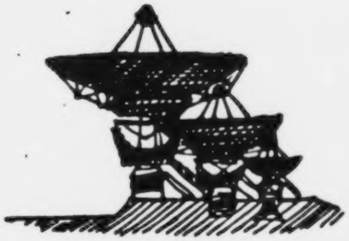




The College of Arts and Letters and College of Business Administration at San Diego State University have joined forces to meet the demand of our country's increasing economic interdependence with other countries of the world. According to the *Economic Report of the President* (1986), U.S. trade activity rose to $575 billion in 1985 from 50.7 billion in 1965. Everyday, more U.S. companies are increasing their business operations around the world. These overseas operations must be managed and financed. The result is an increasing demand for people with international expertise.

A recent report on international education by the American Institute for Foreign Study stated that "The economic well being of the United States is inextricably linked to the world economy.

- Our 13 largest banks derive half of their total earnings from overseas investments.
- One third of all U.S. corporations are foreign based or foreign owned.
- Some 20% of our total national industrial production is for export."



To meet the demand for international managers, the SDSU Colleges of Arts and Letters and Business Administration have developed a Liberal Studies Option 1 degree in International Commerce.

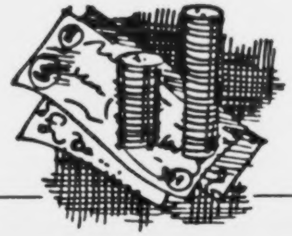
Business – Preparation for the major (15 units)
Major requirements (18 units)

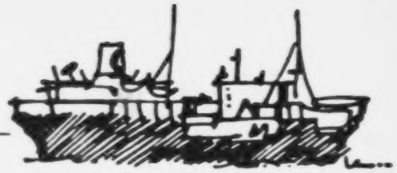
Area Studies – Preparation for the major (12-15 units)
Major requirements (12 units)

Foreign Language – Preparation for the major (12-15 units)
Major requirements (12 units)

Students will be required to fulfill a minimum of 42 units in preparation for the major, and 39 units of major coursework. The unit requirements are listed above. Many of the courses in the preparation area can also be used to satisfy General Education requirements.

Only students who have completed the third semester of the foreign language, which will be a part of this program, can apply. (Bilingual or native speakers may be exempt from this stipulation).





Declaration of major process

- Make an appointment with the Associate Dean of Undergraduate Studies (AD 223)
- If eligible, develop masterplan with the approval of Associate Dean.
- Obtain approvals from departments you have chosen in your masterplan.
- Schedule another appointment with the Associate Dean of Undergraduate Studies to verify approval and finalize process.

"First and foremost, a student needs some background in accounting, marketing and finance. Finally, language proficiency enhances the chance of overseas assignment and success on the job. After all, the best language of business is the language of the customer."

Bartly Nouise
Director of Career Services
The Fletcher School

APPENDIX 2

Proposal for Inclusion in the
San Diego State Academic Master Plan
and the Implementation of a New Degree Major Program
in International Commerce

February, 1988

1. DEFINITION OF THE PROPOSED DEGREE MAJOR PROGRAM

a. Name of the campus submitting the request, the full and exact designation (degree terminology) for the proposed degree program, and academic year of intended implementation.

Campus: San Diego State University

Degree: International Commerce Major with an A.B. Degree in Liberal Arts and Sciences

Date of Implementation: 1990-91 Academic Year

b. Name of the department, departments, division, or other unit of the campus that would offer the proposed degree major program. Identify the unit that will have primary responsibility.

The International Commerce Major is designed as an interdisciplinary undergraduate degree program with the majority of course offerings and degree requirements from within the College of Arts and Letters. No new department will be created. The program will be administered through the Dean of the College of Arts and Letters and a faculty committee with representatives from each of the participating departments and programs.

c. Name, title, and rank of the individual(s) primarily responsible for drafting the proposed degree major program.

Dr. Alvord G. Branan
Professor of French (on leave)
College of Arts and Letters

Dr. Richard Funston
Associate Dean and Professor of Political Science
College of Arts and Letters

Dr. Michael Hergert
Associate Professor of Management
College of Business Administration

d. Objectives of the proposed degree major program.

This program allows students to complete a degree with a coordinated set of courses in three fields: area studies, business, and foreign language. This truly interdisciplinary major will provide students with a new and broader liberal education necessary in today's increasingly interconnected global community. Students will select an area of the world other than North

America, in which to concentrate (Asia, Europe, or Latin America) and an appropriate second language (Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish), and combine them with a common set of courses in Business (Finance, Management, Marketing). The area studies courses are generally the equivalent of a minor; the foreign language component aims at a competency level that is greater than that acquired in the minor; and the business sequence culminates in three international courses. Students choosing French, German, or Spanish may also receive certification of their language skills by the governments of those three countries.

e. Total number of units required for the major. List of all courses, by catalog number, title, and units of credit to be specifically required for the major under the proposed degree program. Identify those new courses that are

(1) Needed to initiate the program, and
(2) Needed during the first two years after implementation. Include proposed catalog description of all new courses.

I. AREA STUDIES

A. Asian Studies

Preparation for the Major (15 units)

History 100: World History, 3 units
History 101: World History, 3 units
and nine units from:
Anthropology 102: Introduction to Cultural Anthropology, 3 units
Asian Studies 105: The Asian Heritage, 3 units
Asian Studies 106: The Asian Heritage, 3 units
Asian Studies 107: The Asian Heritage, 3 units (recommended)
Geography 102: Introduction to Cultural Geography, 3 units
Political Science 103: Introduction to Comparative Government, 3 units

Major (12 units)

Six units from:
Asian Studies 458: Asian Traditions
Asian Studies 459: Contemporary Asian Cultures
Asian Studies 499: Special Study
Asian Studies 560: History of Japanese Business and Trade
Asian Studies 596: Selected Studies in Asian Cultures
Comparative Literature 430: Asian Literature
History 561A/B: Asia and the West
History 562: Civilization of India: The Great Traditions
History 563: Modern India and Its Neighbors
History 564A/B: Southeast Asia
History 566: Chinese Civilization: The Great Traditions
History 567: China's Century of Modernization
History 568: Communist Party and the Chinese Revolution

History 569: Japanese Civilization
History 570: Modern Japan
Philosophy 351: Chinese Philosophy
Philosophy 575: A Major Philosopher (when relevant)
Philosophy 596: Selected Topics (when relevant)
Religious Studies 401*: Religions of India
Religious Studies 403*: Religions of the Far East
Religious Studies 506*: Spiritual Traditions of India
Religious Studies 508*: Spiritual Traditions of East Asia
and six units from
Anthropology 450*: Cultures of India
Anthropology 452*: Japanese Society
Anthropology 496: Experimental Topics (when relevant)
Anthropology 582: Regional Anthropology (when relevant)
Economics 330*: Comparative Economic Systems
Economics 360*: International Economic Problems
Economics 365*: Economics of Underdeveloped Areas
Economics 465*: Economic Problems of South and East Asia
Geography 331: Monsoon Asia
Geography 540: Advanced Regional Geography (when relevant)
Political Science 362: Governments and Politics of East Asia
Political Science 499: Special Study (when relevant)
*Additional prerequisites are required for these courses.

B. European Studies

Preparation for the Major (15 units)

History 105: Western Civilization, 3 units
History 106: Western Civilization, 3 units
Classics 140: The Heritage of Greece and Rome, 3 units
and six units from:
Anthropology 102: Introduction to Cultural Anthropology, 3 units
Art 258: Appreciation and History of Art, 3 units
Art 259: Appreciation and History of Art, 3 units
Comparative Literature 210: Introduction to Comparative Literature, 3 units or English 220: Introduction to Literature, 3 units
Geography 102: Introduction to Cultural Geography, 3 units
Music 151: Introduction to Music, 3 units
Philosophy 101: Introduction to Philosophy: Values, 3 units
Philosophy 102: Introduction to Philosophy: Knowledge and Reality, 3 units
Political Science 103: Introduction to Comparative Government, 3 units

Major (12 units)

A minimum of six units from:
Humanities 401A/B: The Cultural Heritage of Europe
Humanities 402A/B: The Cultural Heritage of Europe
and no more than six units from:
Anthropology 440*: Cultures of Europe

Anthropology 582*: Regional Anthropology (when relevant)
Comparative Literature 511: Continental Renaissance
Comparative literature 512: Seventeenth and Eighteenth Century European Literature
Comparative Literature 513: Nineteenth Century European Literature
Comparative Literature 514: Modern European Literature
Economics 330*: Comparative Economic Systems
Economics 360*: International Economic Problems
Economics 483*: Comparative Labor Problems
Geography 336: Europe
History 305A/B*: The Sources of Civilization in the West
History 407A/B: Modern Europe
Humanities 310: French Civilization
Humanities 311: French Civilization
Humanities 320: German Civilization
Humanities 330: Russian Civilization
Humanities 331: Russian Civilization
Humanities 340: Italian Civilization
Humanities 350: Spanish Civilization
Humanities 400: Civilization Through Travel/Study (when relevant)
Political Science 356: Governments of Continental Europe
Religious Studies 312*: Russian Orthodox Spirituality
*Additional prerequisites are required for these courses.

C. Latin American Studies

Preparation for the Major (12 units)

12 units from:
Anthropology 102: Intro. to Cultural Anthropology, 3 units
Geography 101: Introduction to Physical Geography, 3 units
History 115A: Comparative History of the Americas, 3 units
History 115B: Comparative History of the Americas, 3 units
Latin American Studies 101: Latin American Heritage, 3 units
Political Science 101: Introduction to Politics and the American Political System, 3 units
Political Science 103: Introduction to Comparative Government, 3 units

Major (12 units)

12 units (with no more than six units from one department) from:
Anthropology 442*: Cultures of South America
Anthropology 443*: Contemporary Latin American Cultures
Anthropology 470*: Prehistory of South America
Anthropology 476*: Ancient Civilizations of Mexico and Central America
Anthropology 496*: Experimental Topics
Anthropology 499*: Special Study
Anthropology 582*: Regional Anthropology (when relevant)
Art 496*: Experimental Topics

Art 499*: Special Study
Art 561: Art of Pre-Hispanic America
Art 562: Art of Latin America
Comparative Literature 445: Modern Latin American Literature
Economics 360*: International Economic Problems
Economics 365*: Economics of Underdeveloped Areas
Economics 464: Economic Problems of Latin America
Economics 496*: Experimental Topics
Economics 499*: Special Study
Economics 562: International Economic Expansion and Dependence
Economics 565: U.S.-Mexico Economic Relations
Finance 329*: International Business Finance
Geography 323: Middle America
Geography 324: South America
Geography 496*: Selected Studies in Geography
Geography 499*: Special Study
History 115A/B: Comparative History of the Americas
History 496*: Issues in History
History 499*: Special Study
History 538A: The American Southwest
History 551A/B: Mexico
History 552: Brazil
History 553: Caribbean Island Nations
History 554: The Andean Republics of South America
History 555: Modernization and Urbanization in Latin America
History 556: Guerrilla Movements in Latin America
History 557: History of Latin American Popular Culture and Social Thought
History 558: Latin America in World Affairs
History 596*: Selected Studies in History
Latin American Studies 101: Latin American Heritage
Latin American Studies 498: Seminar on Latin America
Latin American Studies 499: Special Study
Latin American Studies 560: Latin America After World War II
Latin American Studies 580: Special Topics
Marketing 376*: International Marketing
Mexican American Studies 306: Mexican Immigration
Mexican American Studies 310: Mexican and Chicano Music
Mexican American Studies 350A: Chicano History
Mexican American Studies 355: The United States-Mexico International Border
Mexican American Studies 375: U.S./Mexico Border History
Mexican American Studies 376: Mexican American Culture and Thought
Mexican American Studies 450: Border Health Conditions and Cultural Practices
Mexican American Studies 496*: Selected Topics in Mexican American Studies
Music 596*: Special Topics in Music
Political Science 382: International Relations of the Latin American States
Political Science 496*: Experimental Topics
Political Science 499*: Special Study
Political Science 566: Political Change in Latin America

Political Science 567: Political Systems of Latin America
Political Science 568: The Mexican Political System
Portuguese 535: Brazilian Literature
Public Administration 580*: Comparative Public Administration
Sociology 496*: Experimental Topics
Sociology 519*: Topics in Comparative Societies
Spanish 306A/B: Survey of Spanish American Literature
Spanish 441: Spanish American Civilization
Spanish 442: Mexican Civilization
Spanish 515A/B: Mexican Literature
Spanish 520: Caribbean Area Countries Literature
Spanish 522: Andean Countries Literature
Spanish 524: Contemporary Argentine Literature
Spanish 570: Spanish American Poetry
Spanish 571: Spanish American Short Story
Spanish 572: Spanish American Theatre
Spanish 596*: Selected Studies in Spanish
Women's Studies 310*: Women in Cross-Cultural Perspective
Women's Studies 496*: Experimental Topics
*Courses to be included with approval of the undergraduate advisor in Latin American Studies.

II. BUSINESS

Preparation for the Major (15 units)

Accounting 201: Accounting Fundamentals I, 3 units
Accounting 202: Accounting Fundamentals II, 3 units
Economics 101: Principles of Economics, 3 units
Economics 102: Principles of Economics, 3 units
Economics 201: Statistical Methods, 3 units, or
Mathematics 119: Elementary Statistics for Business, 3 units

Major (18 units)

Finance 323: Fundamentals of Finance, 3 units
Finance 329: International Business Finance, 3 units
Management 350: Management and Organization, 3 units
Management 466: International Business Strategy and Multinational Enterprises, 3 units
Marketing 370: Marketing, 3 units
Marketing 376: International Marketing, 3 units

The Foreign Language Graduation Requirement plus all Preparation for the Major in the Business portion of this major must be completed before enrolling in any upper division courses in Business Administration.

III. FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A. Chinese

Preparation for the Major (12 units)

Chinese 101: Elementary, 4 units
Chinese 102: Elementary, 4 units
Chinese 296: Experimental Topics, 4 units

Major (9 units)

Chinese 303: Readings in Contemporary Chinese, 4 units
Chinese 304: Readings in Chinese, 4 units
Chinese 496: Topics in Chinese Studies, 1 unit

B. French

Preparation for the Major (22 units)

French 100A: Elementary, 5 units
French 100B: Elementary, 5 units
French 200A: French Grammar, 3 units
French 200C: Writing French, 3 units
French 200D: The Grammar of Spoken French, 3 units
French 200E: Readings in Commercial French, 3 units

Major (9 units)

French 301: Advanced Grammar and Composition, 3 units
French 302: Advanced Grammar and Composition, 3 units
French 423: Commercial French: Theory and Correspondence, 3 units

C. German

Preparation for the Major (20 units)

German 100A: First Course in German, 5 units
German 100B: Second Course in German, 5 units
German 200A: Grammar of Written German, 3 units
German 200B: Expository German for Reading Comprehension, 3 units
German 211: Conversation, 2 units
German 212: Conversation, 2 units

Major (9 units)

German 301: Grammar and Composition, 3 units
German 302: Grammar and Composition, 3 units
and
German 403: Advanced Oral and Written German, 3 units
or
German 420: German Civilization

D. Italian

Preparation for the Major (16 units)

Italian 100A: Elementary, 5 units
Italian 100B: Elementary, 5 units
Italian 200A: Intermediate Grammar and Composition, 3 units
Italian 200B: Reading and Speaking Italian, 3 units

Major (9 units)

Italian 301: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
Italian 305A/B: Italian Literature, 3/3 units

E. Japanese

Preparation for the Major (16 units)

Japanese 101: Elementary Japanese I, 4 units
Japanese 102: Elementary Japanese II, 4 units
Japanese 201: Intermediate Japanese I, 4 units
Japanese 202: Intermediate Japanese II, 4 units

Major (9 units)

Japanese 301: Third Year Japanese I, 3 units
Japanese 302: Third Year Japanese II, 3 units
Japanese 496: Topics in Japanese Studies, 3 units

F. Portuguese

Preparation for the Major (14 units)

Portuguese 101: Elementary/Intensive, 5 units
Portuguese 211: Conversation and Grammar Review, 3 units
Portuguese 212: Conversation and Grammar Review, 3 units
Portuguese 296: Experimental Topics, 3 units

Major

Portuguese 301: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
Portuguese 302: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
Portuguese 535: Brazilian Literature, 3 units

G. Russian

Preparation for the Major (21 units)

Russian 101: First Course in Russian, 4-1/2 units
Russian 102: Second Course in Russian, 4-1/2 units
Russian 201: Third Course in Russian, 4 units
Russian 202: Fourth Course in Russian, 4 units
Russian 211: Conversation, 2 units
Russian 212: Conversation, 2 units

Major (9 units)

Russian 301: Advanced Grammar and Composition, 3 units
Russian 302: Advanced Grammar and Composition, 3 units
and 3 units from
Russian 501: Translation, 3 units
Russian 580: Russian Syntax and Stylistics
Russian 581: Russian Phonetics and Morphology

H. Spanish*

Preparation for the Major (19 units)

Spanish 100A: First Spanish Course, 4 units
Spanish 100B: Second Spanish Course, 4 units
Spanish 100C: Third Spanish Course, 4 units
Spanish 200: Spanish Grammar, Reading and Writing, 4 units
Spanish 203: Spanish Conversation and Composition, 3 units

*Assumes approval of the Spanish Department's proposed revision of its curriculum, which proposal is presently before the appropriate campus committees.

Major (9 units)

Spanish 301A: Advanced Reading and Writing, 3 units
Spanish 301B: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
and
Spanish 302: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
or
Spanish 304: Introduction to Spanish-English/English-Spanish Translation, 3 units

No new courses are needed to initiate the program and no new courses are needed after the first two years of implementation.

f. List of elective courses, by catalog number, title, and units of credit, that can be used to satisfy requirements for the major. Identify those new courses that are

(1) needed to initiate the program, and
(2) needed during the first two years after implementation. Include proposed catalog description of all new courses.

There are no electives in the business component of this major. The nine-unit upper division foreign language and the 12-unit upper division area studies components do contain elective courses. These courses are selected by the student in consultation with and with the approval of the Chair of the International Commerce Program. All elective courses will be selected from existing courses. Therefore, no new elective courses are needed to initiate the degree program, and no elective courses will be needed for the first two years after implementation, aside from those already listed in le.

g. If any formal options, concentrations, or emphases are planned under the proposed major, explain fully.

No formal options, concentrations, or emphases are planned under the proposed International Commerce Degree. Students are free to choose the language and area study that best suit their professional goals.

h. Course prerequisites and other criteria for admission of students to the proposed degree major program and for their continuation in it.

The Foreign Language Graduation Requirement plus all Preparation for the Major in the Business portion of this major must be completed before enrolling in any upper division courses in the College of Business Administration.

i. Explanation of special characteristics of the proposed degree major program, e.g., in terminology, units of credit required, types of course work, etc.

The International Commerce program is singular in that it has already been designated as a testing site for the "Certificat Pratique de Francais Commercial et Economique" granted by the Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris and recognized by the French National Ministry of Education. In spring 1986, eight SDSU students passed that examination and were awarded that certificate.

Plans are underway for similar authorization in German from the German-American Chamber of Commerce, the Carl Duisberg Society, and the Goethe Institute; and in Spanish for the "Certificado de Espagnol Comercial Basico," from the Chamber of Commerce and the Official School of Languages in Madrid.

j. For undergraduate programs: Provisions for articulation of the proposed major with community college programs.

University-sanctioned articulation agreements already exist with community colleges for all three sets of Preparation for the Major courses required for this major.

k. Provisions for meeting accreditation requirements, where applicable, and anticipated date of accreditation request.

This program does not require accreditation. Although the College of Business Administration is a participant, the number of units required in business are not sufficient for AACSB accreditation, nor is the degree conceived as a B.S. in business; rather as a B.A. in liberal arts and sciences.

2. NEED FOR THE PROPOSED DEGREE MAJOR PROGRAM

a. List of other California State University campuses currently offering or projecting the proposed degree major program; list of neighboring institutions, public and private, currently offering the proposed degree major program.

CSU Fullerton offers a Bachelor of Arts in International Business. Although many neighboring institutions offer degree programs that are called international business, none is truly such since none includes significant course work in all three fields: area studies, business, foreign language.

b. Differences between the proposed program and programs listed in item a. above.

While the language component is roughly the same, CSU Fullerton requires approximately seven fewer courses in area studies and five more courses in business than does SDSU.

	Area Studies		Business		Language	
	SDSU	CSUF	SDSU	CSUF	SDSU	CSUF
Lower Div.	12-15	0	15	20-21	16-22	13
Upper Div.	12	3	18	28	9	15
TOTAL	24-27	3	33	48-49	25-31	28

Grand total:

SDSU 82-91
CSUF 80-81

c. List of other curricula currently offered by the campus that are closely related to the proposed program. Enrollment figures during the past three years in specified courses or programs closely related to the proposed degree major program. If a formal minor, option, or concentration is offered in the proposed subject area, indicate the number of students enrolled.

The proposed program is being offered currently as Liberal Studies Option I: Liberal Studies in Three Departments with the A.B. Degree in Liberal Arts and Sciences. The first major declared in April 1986. There are currently (10/87) 67 declared majors. Before declaring this major, students must complete the first three courses in foreign language (or equivalent), Accounting 201 and 202, Economics 101 and 102, and Math 119, for a total of from 15 to 28 units. The following is the current breakdown of declared majors according to language and area:

French/European Studies	27
Spanish/European Studies	10
Spanish/Latin American Studies	15
German/European Studies	5
Japanese/Asian Studies	4
Chinese/Asian Studies	2
Portuguese/European Studies	1
Portuguese/Latin American Studies	1
Italian/European Studies	1
Econ/Asian Studies (special permission to sub. Econ for Japanese)	1
	67

d. Results of a formal survey in the geographical area to be served indicating demand for individuals who have earned the proposed degree and evidence of serious student interest in majoring in the proposed program. Justify any discrepancies between national/statewide/professional manpower surveys and local findings.

There are over 300 majors in the International Business program at CSU Fullerton at the end of the fourth year of implementation. Fifty-four SDSU students have already declared this major under the Liberal Studies rubric. As a free-standing major, the number should triple. The only other undergraduate program in the entire nation is at Eastern Michigan University. Comparable programs at Monterey Institute for International Studies, the American Graduate School of International Management (Thunderbird), University of South Carolina, and the Lauder Institute (Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania) are all graduate programs.

e. For graduate programs, the number of declared undergraduate majors and the degree production over the preceding three years for the corresponding degree major program.

Not applicable.

f. Professional uses of the proposed degree major program.

In 1984, the French and Spanish programs discovered that the single largest group of students taking courses in those programs were from the College of Business Administration. Those students are not subject to the foreign language graduation requirement. This fact, coupled with the fact that foreign language minors are the most popular minors in the college (668 students graduate with a foreign language minor between 1980-81 and 1985-86, an average of 135 per year) and that business minors are popular among foreign language majors suggested that a more formalized program in business, foreign language, and area studies was needed. Eastern Michigan University (EMU) and CSU Fullerton (CSUF) were consulted.

EMU's program was created in 1979. There are now over 450 majors. Based on the results of an EMU alumni survey in fall 1983, more than 95% of graduates were employed in the business world; approximately 65% obtained immediate, entry-level positions in international operations. Employment areas include:

International and Domestic Marketing
Sales
Advertising
Management
Accounting
International Tax Accounting
International Banking
Import/Export
Customs and Port Authority
Industrial Technology
Global Communications
Information Systems
Translating/Interpreting
Executive Secretary
Foreign Service
Immigration and Naturalization Service
Department of Commerce
Military Service
Airlines
Foreign Correspondence
Journalism

g. The expected number of majors in the year of initiation and three years and five years thereafter. The expected number of graduates in the year of initiation and three years and five years thereafter.

	Majors	Degrees
Current (1986-87)	53	0
Year I (1989-90)	150	38
Year III (1991-92)	300	75
Year V (1993-94)	300	75

3. EXISTING SUPPORT RESOURCES FOR THE PROPOSED DEGREE MAJOR PROGRAM

a. Faculty members, with rank, appointment status, highest degree earned, date and field of highest degree, and professional experience (including publications if the proposal is for a graduate degree), who would teach in the proposed program.

In the interest of saving space and time, we are limiting our list of participating faculty to one per department or program (c.v. attached).

Business Administration	Michael Hergert (Ph.D., Harvard), Associate Professor of Management
Finance	M. Salehizadeh (Ph.D., Wisconsin), Professor of Finance
Management	M. Hergert (Ph.D., Harvard), Associate Professor of Management
Marketing	M. Saghafi ________________________________
Arts and Letters	A. G. Branan (Ph.D., Tulane), Professor of French, Associate Dean, CAL
Area Studies	
Asian Studies	D. Whitney (Ph.D., Michigan State University), Program Chair and Professor of Anthropology
European Studies	L. Rosenstein (Ph.D., Columbia), Program Chair and Professor of Philosophy
Latin American St.	T. Davies (Ph.D., New Mexico), Program Chair and Professor of History
Language	
Chinese	C. Woo (Ed.D., University of San Francisco), Professor of Chinese
French	J. Schorr (Ph.D., Texas), Associate Professor of French
German	E. Skwara (Ph.D., SUNY-Albany), Assistant Professor of German
Italian	G. Vergani (Dottorato in Lettere, Pavia), Professor of Italian
Japanese	Y. Higurashi (Ph.D., Texas), Associate Professor of Japanese
Portuguese	M. Silverman (Ph.D., Illinois), Professor of Spanish and Portuguese
Russian	L. Kozlik (Ph.D., University of Texas), Professor of Russian
Spanish	E. Barrera (Ph.D., USC), Department of Chair and Professor of Spanish

b. Space and facilities that would be used in support of the proposed program. Show how this space is currently used and what alternate arrangements, if any, will be made for the current occupants.

No new classroom, office, or language laboratory space is anticipated.

c. Library resources to support the program, specified by subject areas, volume count, periodical holding, etc.

The Love Library collection comprises 843,000 volumes including books and bound periodicals, and 426,000 government documents. Additional resources include 2.1 million microfiche and microopaque cards, 50,300 reels of microfilm, 805 college catalogs, 137,000 maps, 4,950 phonograph records, 50,000 curriculum items and 1,500 linear feet of archival papers. The library receives 9,200 periodical and serial titles, excluding government documents. It is a depository for United States and California government publications. It receives all United Nations and Organization of American States publications, as well as many publications of other national and international bodies.

Significant research collections in business, humanities, and social sciences include: Asian studies; business; public administration; Latin America; Mexican history; Chicano resource materials; the literatures of Spanish America, Europe, Asia, and Africa.

d. Equipment and other specialized materials currently available.

A modern 104-station audio Foreign Language Laboratory is currently available. A 140-station interactive, integrated (audio/video) language learning and research center is planned for 1991.

4. ADDITIONAL SUPPORT RESOURCES REQUIRED

a. Complete Table 1. Enrollment and faculty positions should be shown for all discipline categories that will increase because of the new program and for all discipline categories that will decrease because of the new program. If faculty positions are to be transferred into the new program from other areas, the reductions in faculty positions should be shown in the appropriate discipline category.

Chart attached.

b. Any special characteristics of the additional faculty or staff support positions needed to implement the proposed program.

None.

c. The amount of additional lecture and/or laboratory space required to initiate and sustain the program over the next five years. Indicate any additional special facilities that will be required. If the space is under construction, what is the projected occupancy date? If the space is planned, indicate campus-wide priority of the facility, capital outlay program priority, and projected date of occupancy.

No new space needed. See 3b above.

d. Additional library resources needed. Indicate the commitment of the campus to purchase or borrow through interlibrary loan these additional resources.

None.

e. Additional equipment or specialized materials that will be (1) needed to implement the program, and (2) needed during the first two years after initiation. Indicate source of funds and priority to secure these resource needs.

(1) None.
(2) None.

3. ABSTRACT OF THE PROPOSAL AND PROPOSED CATALOG DESCRIPTION

a. Abstract of the proposal.

SDSU proposes an International Commerce Major with the A.B. Degree in Liberal Arts and Sciences. As the name accurately implies, this program is envisioned as being in the arts and not in the sciences, and as being liberal as opposed to applied.

Students will complete approximately equal amounts of coursework in three fields: area studies, business, and foreign language. The choice of the area (Asia, Europe, Latin America) and the language (Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish) will be dictated by the students' career choices. The business courses will be common to all languages and areas. Students will complete roughly the equivalent of the current Preparation for the Major for three different majors as well as upper division coursework that is of greater breadth and depth than most minor programs in the three distinct fields.

	Area Studies	Business	For. Lang.	Total
Preparation for the Major	12-15	15	15-22	42-52
Major	12	18	9	39
Total	24-27	33	24-31	81-91

Students completing the program in French, German, or Spanish may also be eligible for a certificate authorized by the governments of those countries.

This program distinguishes itself from the only other two programs of this kind in the U.S. (B.A. in International Business at CSU Fullerton and the B.A. in Language and International Trade at Eastern Michigan University) by its enhanced area studies component.

One year after its inception as a student-generated, Liberal Studies Option I major, over 50 students have completed the prerequisites (eight courses, 27 units) and declared the major. Based upon the experience at CSU Fullerton and at Eastern Michigan University (300 and 450 majors respectively), it is anticipated that there will be 300 declared majors at SDSU three years after its inception.

b. Proposed catalog description.

International Commerce
In the College of Arts and Letters

Faculty

International Commerce is administered by the International Commerce Program Committee. The program draws upon courses offered by faculty in the following departments and programs: Asian Studies, Chinese, European Studies, Finance, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Latin American Studies, Management, Marketing, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish.

Chair and undergraduate advisor: A. G. Branan.

Offered by International Commerce

Major in International Commerce with an A.B. degree in liberal arts and sciences.

Advising

All International Commerce majors are required to consult with the Chair of International Commerce Program prior to declaring this major.

International Commerce Major with A.B. Degree in Liberal Arts and Sciences (Major Code)

All candidates for a degree in liberal arts and sciences must complete the graduation requirements listed in the section of this catalog on "Graduation Requirements."

Preparation for the Major (Complete I, II, and III: 39-52 units).

I. AREA STUDIES (choose one area)

A. Asian Studies

History 100 and 101; and six units from History 120, 121; Asian Studies 105, 106, 107; Anthropology 102; Geography 102; and three units from Economics 100; Political Science 103. (15 units)

B. European Studies

History 105, 106; Classics 140; and six units from Art 258, 259; Comparative Literature 210 or English 220; Geography 102; Music 151; Philosophy 101, 102; Political Science 103. (15 units)

C. Latin American Studies

Twelve units from Anthropology 101; Geography 101; History 115A, 115B; Latin American Studies 101; Political Science 101, 103. (12 units)

II. BUSINESS

Accounting 201, 202; Economics 101, 102; and Mathematics 119. (15 units)

III. FOREIGN LANGUAGE (choose one language)

A. Chinese

Chinese 101, 202, 296 (12 units)

Continued

B. French

French 100A, 100B, 200A, 200C, 200D, 200E. (22 units)

C. German

German 100A, 100B, 200A, 200B, 211, 212. (20 units)

D. Italian

Italian 100A, 100B, 200A, 200B. (16 units)

E. Japanese

Japanese 101, 102, 201, 202. (16 units)

F. Portuguese

Portuguese 101, 211, 212, 296. (14 units)

G. Russian

Russian 101, 102, 201, 202, 211, 212. (21 units)

H. Spanish

Spanish 100A, 100B, 100C, 200, 203. (19 units)

Foreign Language Requirement

The foreign language requirement is automatically fulfilled through course work for preparation for the major.

Upper Division Writing Requirement

Passing the University Writing Exam or completion of one of the approved writing courses with a grade of C (2.0) or better.

Major (complete I, II, and III below: 39 units)

I. AREA STUDIES (choose one area)

A. Asian Studies. A minimum of 12 units. Humanities: No fewer than six units from Asian Studies 458, 459, 499, 560, 596; Comparative Literature 430; History 561A-561B, 562, 563, 564A-564B, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570; Philosophy 351, 575 (when relevant), 596 (when relevant); Religious Studies 401*, 403*, 506*, 508*. Social Sciences: no fewer than six units from Anthropology 450*, 452*, 496 (when relevant), 582 (when relevant); Economics 330*, 360*, 365*, 465*; Geography 331, 540 (when relevant); Political Science 362, 499 (when relevant).

B. European Studies. A minimum of 12 units from Humanities 401A, 401B, 402A, 402B: Anthropology 440*, 582*; Comparative Literature 511, 512, 513, 514; Economics 330*, 360*, 483*; Geography 336; History 305A*, 305B*, 407A, 407B; Humanities 310, 311, 320, 330, 331, 340, 350, 400 (when relevant); Political Science 356; or Religious Studies 312*.

C. Latin American Studies. A minimum of 12 units (with no more than six units from one department) from Anthropology 442, 443, 470, 476, 496*, 499*; Art 496*, 499*, 561, 562; Comparative Literature 445; Economics 360*, 365*, 464, 496*, 499*, 562, 565; Finance 329*; Geography 323, 324, 496*, 499*; History 115A-115B, 496*, 499*, 538A, 551A-551B, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 596*; Latin American Studies 101, 498, 499, 560, 580; Marketing 376*; Mexican American Studies 306, 310, 350A, 355, 375, 376, 450, 496*; Music 596*; Political Science 382, 496*, 499*, 566, 567, 568; Portuguese 535; Public Administration 580*; Sociology 496*, 519*; Spanish 306A-306B, 441, 442, 515A-515B, 520, 522, 524, 570, 571, 572, 596*; Women's Studies 310 (when relevant), 496*.

II. BUSINESS

A minimum of 18 units to include Finance 323, 329; Management 350, 466; Marketing 370, 376.

The Foreign Language Graduation Requirement plus all Preparation for the Major in the Business portion of this major must be comleted before enrolling in any upper division courses in Business Administration.

III. FOREIGN LANGUAGE (choose one language)

A. Chinese

A minimum of nine units to include Chinese 303, 304, 496.

B. French

A minimum of nine units to include French 301, 302, 423.

C. German

A minimum of nine units to include German 301, 302 and 403 or 420.

D. Italian

A minimum of nine units to include Italian 301, 305A, 305B.

E. Japanese

A minimum of nine units to include Japanese 301, 302, 496.

F. Portuguese

A minimum of nine units to include Portuguese 301, 302, 535.

G. Russian

A minimum of nine units to include Russian 301, 302, and 430 or 501.

H. Spanish

A minimum of nine units to include Spanish 301A, 301B, and 302 or 304.

6. COSTS, RESOURCES, IMPACT, RELATION TO CAMPUS'S MISSION AND MASTER PLAN, USE OF CAMPUS RESOURCES

a. Careful assessment of the direct costs of implementing and sustaining the program, including evidence that the campus has identified and is prepared to (re)allocate sufficient resources to the new program to ensure a reasonable chance for its success on a quality basis.

The Dean of the College of Arts and Letters has pledged .20 in assigned time each semester for the Chair, has earmarked $250 in Supplies and Services funds, and will assign space in the Asian and European Studies Center (AH-3172) to the program. Furthermore, International Commerce will be assigned .17 (approximately seven hours per week) clerical support equal to that now assigned to Asian and European Studies, and will be given a work study allotment. A faculty computer workstation will be assigned to the Chair. The College of Arts and Letters will seek to have this program housed in the University's Gateway Complex once that complex is completed.

b. Identification, if possible, of the source of resources to be reallocated, and assessment of the impact on the area(s) losing resources.

These resources will come out of the College's $14,000,000 instructional and $500,000 operating budgets.

c. Relation of the new program to the campus's mission and to its academic master plan, including consideration of whether implementation might preclude the establishment of other planned programs.

SDSU's mission and goals statement includes the following: "To have students understand themselves and their world; . . . understand the ways in which people of this and other societies . . . interact; . . . the University endeavors to identify and be responsive to the needs of the regional, national and international communities that it serves; . . . to prepare students for a proficient and successful practice of a profession."

The International Commerce major is closely aligned with these missions and goals. American businesses are making a dramatic transition from competing in a domestic and closed economy to competing internationally in an increasingly globalized marketplace. This adaptation has been slow, however. Many of the problems encountered in effecting this transition have been attributed to traditional American management style. U.S. managers are often characterized as ethnocentric and uncompromising when dealing with foreigners.

One of the reasons for American managerial inflexibility is the approach to "international" business education used at most U.S. universities. International business is taught as an independent discipline. Little attempt is made to integrate international business programs into a broader economic and societal context. For those students who wish to take courses in area studies, business, and foreign language, SDSU's International Commerce major provides an integrated degree program for that purpose. Students completing this major will better understand today's interdependent world and the ways people of different cultures interact socially and economically. By offering this degree program, SDSU will have increased its responsiveness to the needs of the international community as well as increased the preparedness of its students for the proficient and successful practice of a profession.

d. Consideration of whether the new program represents the best possible use of campus resources. This includes such concerns as the need on an immediate and continuing basis for program graduates (relative to other program possibilities) and scarcity of program alternatives for students in a region, either through lack of programs or program impaction.

The implementation of this program will not preclude the establishment of other planned programs and it represents the best possible use of campus resources since it tends to maximize current curricular offerings. There are only two comparable programs in the U.S. (CSU Fullerton - 300 majors; Eastern Michigan University - 450 majors). SDSU's program distinguishes itself from the others by the greater breadth and depth of its area studies component and the resultant better overall balance among all three fields: area studies, business, language. SDSU's program may also have the effect of redistributing student demand from a highly impacted program, business, to programs with more moderate demand: area studies, languages.

AGB:RYF:dw
2/15/88

APPENDIX 3

Prospectus
6/25/87

Intensive/Immersion Language Project (Japanese and Spanish) for the International Commerce Major

PART I: SDSU's International Commerce Program

I. Introduction

American businesses are making a dramatic transition from competing in a domestic and closed economy to competing against international rivals in an increasingly globalized marketplace. This change in the nature of commerce has great implications for the way in which students should be trained at our universities. The manager of the future must have skills beyond the traditional business curriculum. S/he must understand the culture and language of competitors and customers in order to defend home markets against powerful rivals and to succeed in selling abroad.

Few programs currently exist to address this need for international management training. The disciplines of area studies, business, and language have traditionally been quite distinct on American campuses. In spring 1986, San Diego State University introduced a program in International Commerce to address this need. The program, in which there are currently 57 majors and over 100 students in a pre-major mode, trains students in culture, language, and business in a comprehensive and integrative curriculum in order to prepare a new breed of manager for the future (Attachment 1). SDSU proposes to add a sophisticated intensive/immersion component to the international commerce program in languages (Japanese and Spanish) critical in the Pacific region.

II. SDSU and Internationalization

SDSU's distinguishes itself by the breadth and depth of its current international activities.

A. Curriculum and Instruction

Because of the historical development of this university, some of the most prominent aspects of international activity at SDSU can be found in the classroom. For example:

- 32 academic departments offer more than 480 courses that are fundamentally international in perspective. Total enrollment in international content courses exceeds 8,000 students, or 2,800 full-time equivalent students per semester, with more than 125 full-time equivalent faculty positions dedicated to teaching and administering these courses.

1157

- 7 area study programs offer instruction focusing on the major regions of the world and on specific countries, including Japan and the countries of Latin America.

- 180 courses are available for the instruction of 11 foreign languages. As a result of SDSU's foreign language graduation requirement, the only one in the 19-campus California State University system, currently almost 7,000 students study foreign language at SDSU.

B. Research and Outreach

Ongoing research and outreach is conducted through more than a dozen campus-based area study institutes, research centers, and contracted international projects. A listing of some activities affecting Japan and/or Latin America provides a vivid idea of the extent and diversity of the SDSU faculty's involvement in international education:

American Language Institute
Asian Studies Center
Center for Marine Studies
Center for the Study of International Education
Center for World Music
Community Health Demonstration Project
Community Nursing Demonstration Project
Educational Administration Program in Mexico
Fiction International
Hispanic Research Project
Institute for Regional Studies of the Californias
Institute on World Affairs
International Population Center
International Studies Project of San Diego
Japan Studies Institute
Latin American Studies Center
Project HOPE
Public Health Border Demonstration Project
Social Work International Intern Training Program
Small Business International Marketing Program
Teacher Education Program in Mexico
USAID contracts

C. Exchange Programs

While instruction and research is the mainstay of developing the international character of SDSU, the exchange of people is also of great importance.

1. During the past ten years, over 500 SDSU faculty members have taught or conducted research in other countries.

2. San Diego State hosts approximately 50 visiting professors and research scholars each year in a wide variety of disciplines.

3. Last year over 200 SDSU students studied abroad.

4. During the past five years, more than 2000 students from 91 countries have enrolled at SDSU.

III. Rationale

The statistics on the changing nature of American business are compelling. It is currently estimated that 80% of all American firms are facing competition from imports. The other 20% are mainly in defense industries, where imports are severely restricted.

There is also evidence that America is losing the battle abroad against aggressive international rivals. In several key industries, such as machine tools, shipbuilding, and consumer electronics, the U.S. share of world sales has dropped precipitously. In our home markets, the situation is just as grave. American firms in steel, textiles, automobiles, and many other key industrial markets have steadily lost ground to imports.

The globalization of many world markets has forced American firms to increase their operations abroad and to confront foreign competitors more directly at home. For example, a recent report on international education by the American Institute for Foreign Study stated that "The economic well-being of the United States is inextricably liked to the world economy.

- Our 13 largest banks derive half of their total earnings from overseas investments.

- One-third of all U.S. corporations are foreign based or foreign owned.

- Some 29% of our total national production is for export."

The adaptation of American corporations to international competition has been slow. As a result, the United states is running the largest international trade deficit of all time. Not only are we importing far more than we export, but we are financing a large part of the deficit through foreign borrowings. Approximately $250 billion, or 3% of the U.S. gross national product, is currently borrowed from foreign investors. This makes the United States the world's largest debtor, far greater than any third world nation.

A great deal of the deterioration in U.S. global business performance has been blamed on traditional American management style. The United States has historically been considered the world leader in management education. Business schools were first started in the U.S., and many of the modern management techniques used around the world were developed in America. However, a sentiment has emerged to suggest that current American business practice is not appropriate for competing in the world economy. American managers are often characterized as ethnocentric and uncompromising in dealing with foreigners. In an era where American products were clearly superior, U.S. companies could afford to deal with foreign firms in this manner. Business was conducted the American way, or not at all. English became the de facto language of international business, and the American system of contracts, negotiation, and commerce was adopted around the world.

The perception of American business skills has changed dramatically. The "Japanese economic miracle" of the last twenty years has been attributed by many observers to their superior management skills and strategies. American firms are now trying to learn from Japan in order to become more competitive. The Japanese have proven themselves astute at tailoring their strategies to the needs of target markets. American managers have shown a distressing reluctance to adapt their policies to the requirements of a host country.

One of the reasons for American managerial inflexibility is the approach to "international" business education used at most U.S. universities. International business is taught as an independent discipline. Little attempt is made to integrate business programs into a broader economic and societal context. Relatively few business majors develop language skills; even fewer learn about cultures and norms abroad and how they affect business. The lack of language skills on the part of American businesspersons is particularly acute. According to Richard Lambert of the University of Pennsylvania, and Director of the new National Foreign Language Center at the Johns Hopkins School of Advanced International Studies; "There is nothing more damaging to the American capacity to cope in a global society than the abysmally low level of foreign language competency of most Americans." For the select group of students who pursue studies in business, area studies, and languages, there are very few opportunities to truly integrate the disciplines.

There is a growing awareness of the need to build academic programs to achieve this goal. The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (the accreditation body for business schools) has mandated that the international dimension of business should be expanded in the curriculum of American universities, and that "every student should be exposed to the international dimension through one or more elements of the curriculum" as a requirement for maintaining accreditation. Professional organizations also recognize this need. The Academy of Management has made "internationalizing the management curriculum" the theme for the 1987 annual convention.

Although these developments are positive, they fall well short of offering a comprehensive approach to international management education. There are only a handful of programs in the United States that explicitly train students in language, area studies, and business in order to develop international management skills. Most of these programs are at the graduate level: American Graduate School of International Management, Lauder Institute of Management and International Studies at the Wharton School, Monterey Institute of International Studies, and the University of South Carolina. The undergraduate programs (California State University at Fullerton and Eastern Michigan University) do not deliver language instruction in the intensive mode, nor do they offer courses taught in the target language outside the language departments (business, area studies). SDSU is proposing both: highly intensive language instruction including a language residence

PART II: SDSU's Intensive/Immersion Japanese/Spanish Language Project

I. Purpose

The intensive/immersion language project for the International Commerce major provides novice and intermediate language study for upper division Business and/or Area Studies classes taught primarily in the target language. There is no language prerequisite in Japanese. The prerequisite for Spanish is proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing commensurate with the standard assigned by the California Foreign Language Competency Project for two years of high school instruction. The first semester of both programs stresses basic language structures and non-specialized vocabulary. Students completing the entire program in Japanese will obtain a minimum proficiency level of Intermediate-high in speaking and listening and Intermediate-mid in reading and writing on the ACTFL/ETS academic rating scale. Students completing the entire program in Spanish will obtain a minimum proficiency level of advanced-plus in all four modalities on the ACTFL/ETS academic rating scale.

II. Organization

Intensive/immersion language instruction is carried out in several modes by professors, assistants, or native informants, according to the expertise required in each instance.

A. Language Classes (5 hours per week) 5 units

The primary mode of instruction is the language class, taught by a linguistically trained native or near-native speaker of the target language to a maximum of 12 students.

B. Language Discussion Groups (10 hours per week) 5 units

Speaking practice is afforded in discussion groups of no more than 12 students assisted by a native speaker of the target language trained to elicit participation and serve as a model of language competence.

C. Language Learning Center (10 hours per week required) 0 units

Supervised practice and study with audio recordings, video-taped materials, computer assisted instruction and interractive videodisc programs are carried out in groups of 11 to 18. Provision is also made for individual, unsupervised practice and study.

NOTE: Students completing A, B, and C above in Spanish will normally enroll in Spanish 203: Spanish Conversation and Composition (Fifth Course in Spanish) during the second semester of the first year. Students in Japanese will enroll in Japanese 201: Intermediate Japanese I (Third Course in Japanese) during the second semester of the first year.

hall and internship abroad experiences, plus business and area studies courses taught in languages (Japanese, Spanish) critical in the Pacific Rim.

Many experts believe that we are entering the "Pacific Century" in the sense that economic power is shifting from the Atlantic nations to those bordering the Pacific. For example, in 1982 the volume of American trans-Pacific trade exceeded that which crossed the Atlantic for the first time ever. The combined economies of the Pacific Rim nations have a gross national product of over three trillion dollars and are growing at the rate of three billion dollars a week.

San Diego is uniquely positioned at the gateway to the Pacific Rim. The city and university have strong historical ties to both Latin America and Asia. The city of San Diego as well as the state of California have developed economies that are closely tied to trade with Pacific Rim countries. San Diego, for example, and Yokohama are sister cities. The *maquiladora* or trinational (U.S., Japan, Mexico) production and trade phenomenon has its axis just 25 miles from San Diego in Tijuana, Mexico. Currently, eighty percent of the foreign trade passing through California ports is with Pacific nations. This trade accounts for over 1.5 million jobs in California. The demographic profile of the student body at San Diego State mirrors these trends. Immigration from Asian and Latin American nations has made the local population and student body a melting pot of ethnic diversity. The Intensive/Immersion Japanese/Spanish Language Project of the International Commerce program is designed to take maximum advantage of San Diego State's unique geographical position.

D. Language Residence Halls

Students are required to live together in a language residence hall during the first academic year of the program. Space for selected upper division students and international students who would serve as native informants would also be reserved. Dedicated audio, video, and computer equipment would be located in these halls.

E. Language Modules (2 hours per week each) 1 unit each

Language modules taught in the target language introduce vocabulary and readings paralleling the work of six lower division classes: accounting, economics, mathematics, and political science in the Spanish program; and ten lower division classes: accounting, economics, geography, history, mathematics and political science in the Japanese program. These language modules are conducted by native or near-native speakers with linguistic training and knowledge of the content area. Twenty to thirty students will be enrolled in each module.

F. Area Studies/Business Courses Taught in the Target Language

A minimum of four area studies and/or business courses will be taught in the target language in the Spanish program and two in Japanese.

G. Semester Abroad (optional) and Internship

Students have the option of participating in an SDSU-sponsored semester abroad program in the first semester of the senior year. Whether spent abroad or on the home campus, the first semester of the senior year includes an internship.

III. Externally Funded Courses

International Commerce
Intensive-Immersion
Business/Latin American Studies/Spanish

Year 1

Language Residence Hall			**Language Residence Hall**	
Span (25 hours)		(10)	Span 203	(3)
Class (5 hours)	(5)		Span 296 Span adjunct to Elem Stat for Bus (Math 119)[1]	(1)
Discussion (10 hours)	(5)		Span 296 Span adjunct to Intro to Comp Gov't (PolSci 103)[1]	(1)
Lang Learn Ctr (10 hours)	(0)			
Total Units		(10)		(5)

Year 2

Span 296 Span adjunct to Acctg Fundamentals I (Acctg 201)[1]	(1)	Span 296 Span adjunct to Acctg Fundamentals II (Acctg 202)[1]	(1)
Span 296 Span adjunct to Econ Principles (Econ 101)[1]	(1)	Span 296 Span adjunct to Econ Principles (Econ 102)[1]	(1)
Span 301A	(3)	Span 301B	(3)
Total Units	(5)		(5)

Year 3

Finance 323 Fundamentals[2]		Finance 329 International Business[2]	
Mgt 350 Mgt & Organization[2]		LAS content course[2]	
Marketing 370 Marketing[2] Span 302[2]	(3)	Mgt 466 Int'l Business Strategy[2]	
Total Units	(12)		(9)

Year 4

Semester Abroad			
Bus Ad 401 Business Internship[2]		LAS content course[2]	
LAS content courses[2]		Marketing 376 International Mkt.[2]	
Total Units	(6)		(6)

Total Units (58)

[1] one-unit module (2 hours) taught primarily in Spanish.
[2] at least one of these courses will be taught primarily in Spanish per semester.

Externally Funded Courses

International Commerce
Intensive-Immersion
Asian Studies/Business/Japanese

Year 1

Language Residence Hall			**Language Residence Hall**	
Japanese (25 hours)		(10)	Japanese 202	(4)
Class (5 hours)	(5)		Jap 296 Jap adjunct to Intro to Cultural Geog (Geog 102)[1]	(1)
Discussion (10 hours)	(5)		Jap 296 Jap adjunct to Elem Stat for Bus (Math 119)[1]	(1)
Lang Learn Ctr (10 hours)	(0)		Jap 296 Jap adjunct to Intro to Comp Govt (PolSci 103)[1]	(1)
Total Units		(10)		(7)

Year 2

Jap 296 Jap adjunct to Acct Fundamentals I (Acctg 201)[1]	(1)	Jap 296 Jap Adjunct to Fundamentals II (Acctg 202)	(1)
Jap 296 Jap adjunct to Econ Principles (Econ 101)[1]	(1)	Jap 296 Jap adjunct to Econ Principles (Econ 102)	(1)
Jap 296 Jap adjunct to Intro/Asian Civ (Hist 120)[1]	(1)	Jap 296 Jap adjunct to Asian Civ/Mod Time (Hist 121)[1]	(1)
Japanese 301	(3)	Japanese 302	(3)
Total Units	(6)		(6)

Year 3

Japanese 400 level	(3)	Jap 496 Jap adjunct to Jap Bus & Trade (As St 560)[1]	(1)
Total Units	(3)		(1)

Year 4

Semester Abroad			
AS content course[2]		AS content course[2]	
OR		OR	
Bus Ad 401 Bus Internship[2]		Marketing 376 International Mkt[2]	
Total Units	(3)		(3)

Total Units (39)

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[1] one-unit module (2 hours), taught primarily in Japanese.

[2] at least one of these courses would be taught primarily in Japanese per semester.

IV. Enrollments

In Year I, 36 students will be admitted in Spanish. It is assumed that any attrition will be made up by students who, because of previously acquired language competence, will enter the program in subsequent semesters.

Twenty-one students will be admitted in Year I in Japanese. An attrition rate of 50% is assumed in Year I and none thereafter.

Timetable

Year	Majors		Total
Year I (1989-90)	36 Spanish/LAS	21 Japanese/Asian St.	57
Year II	72	31	103
Year III	108	41	149
Year IV	144	51	195
Year V	144	51	195
etc.			

V. Staffing (Attachment I)

In order to staff the intensive language courses, the target language modules, and the area studies/business courses taught in the target language for 36 to 144 students in Spanish and 21 to 51 in Japanese, additional staffing of 5.67 FTEF (Full Time Equivalent Faculty or 12 units per semester) in year I and 8.98 in year IV is required. No additional externally funded staffing is necessary for any other Preparation for the Major or Major courses.

A. Four-Year Instructional Funding Summary (External)
(includes 5% cost-of-living salary increase each year)

	FTEF	Salary	Benefits (28%)
Year I (1989/90)[1]	5.67	$184,504	$51,661
Year II (1990/91)	7.27	246,854	69,119
Year III (1991/92)	8.48	299,939	83,983
Year IV (1992/93)	8.98	330,327	82,492
		$1,061,624	$297,255

[1] based upon 1986/87 salary schedule + 15%.

B. Instructional Funding (SDSU)

The staffing costs above include three kinds of courses: target language courses; target language modules that are adjunct to area studies/business courses taught in English; and area studies/business courses taught in the target language (39 or 58 units total). SDSU will fund the staffing of the remainder of the courses required to complete the major (46 or 29-1/2 units total) during the four-year funding period (1989/90-1992/93) and assume complete funding beginning 1993/94. The remaining 39 or 36-1/2 units required for graduation will, of course, be funded by SDSU.

	FTEF	Salary
Year V (1993-94)	8.98	$343,033
etc.		

VI. Language Residence Halls (Attachments IIIa and IIIb)

SDSU will dedicate two floors of one wing of Zura Hall (approximately 14,000 square feet) consisting of 28 double rooms and nine single rooms (see floor plan, attachment II). All first-year language students will live in this residence hall, which will be equipped with personal computers in each room and a 12-person conference room with dedicated audio and video. This latter facility will be linked to the university's Instructional Television Network (ITV) and mainframe computer.

Equipment and Charges (External Funding)

1. PAL/SECAM/NTSC video cassette player and recorder
2. 19" video monitor
3. 25" NTSC receiver/monitor
4. Antenna system
5. Video Tape Library
6. Storage
7. Cable video service
8. Satellite dish downloading
9. 37 work stations (computers, monochrome monitors, circuitry, security devices, dot matrix printers, and computer desks)

Note: Software allowing access to foreign-language character sets will be public domain or purchased by student.

Year I	$106,325
Year II	6,477
Year III	6,477
Year IV	6,477
	$125,756

VII. Project Director

The Chair of SDSU's International Commerce Program will serve as the Director of the Intensive/Immersion Japanese and Spanish Language Project of that program. The duties of the Chair include:

1. Publicize and promote the project
2. Preside over the screening of student applicants
3. Serve as the academic adviser for all majors
4. Administer all project funds
5. Prepare an annual project report for the external funding source, the Dean of the College, and the Board of Advisers
6. Conduct meetings of the International Commerce Committee
7. Supervise the internship program

The Project Director shall receive .25 reimbursed time (12 months' paid for from the grant, and .20 assigned time (academic year) as Chair of International Commerce contributed by the College of Arts and Letters.

Project Director

	Grant		SDSU
	Salary	Benefits (28%)	
Year I	$6,832	$1,913	$7,005
Year II	7,154	2,012	7,356
Year III	7,543	2,112	7,724
Year IV	7,920	2,215	8,110
TOTAL	29,479	8,252	30,195

VIII. Clerical Assistant

The Project Director will be supported by a .50 annual Clerical Assistant II-A whose typical duties include: Receive visitors and telephone calls to the office and provide such information as class schedules, office hours of faculty members, arrangements and schedules of special activities of the office, course material requirements, etc.; refer callers to appropriate persons; receive and screen mail and provide pertinent background correspondence; prepare routine correspondence, letters of transmittal, or modify form letters in response to inquiries from potential and new students; post and maintain records such as purchase and work order funds, expenditures, overtime and compensatory time, student assistant and work study student records with responsibility for the completeness, currency and accuracy of such records.

Clerical Assistant IIA

	Salary	Benefits (28%)	Total
Year I	$ 9,421	$2,639	$12,060
Year II	10,133	2,837	12,970
Year III	10,640	2,979	13,619
Year IV	11,172	3,128	14,300
TOTAL	41,366	11,563	52,949

IX. Board of Advisers (This list is unconfirmed.)

Members of the Board of Advisers of the Intensive/Immersion Japanese/Spanish Language Project of the International Commerce Major at SDSU will review annual reports at their pleasure, as well as offer counsel, when deemed necessary, on future directions of the project.

The Board of Advisers shall consist of:

Dr. Thomas B. Day, President, SDSU
J. David Edwards, Executive Director of the Joint National Committee for Language, Washington, D.C.
Dr. Rose L. Hayden, President, National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies, New York, New York
The Honorable Maureen O'Connor, Mayor of the City of San Diego
The Honorable Leon Panetta, Member of the U.S. Congress, 16th District, California
Kenneth Thygerson, President, Imperial Savings Corporation, San Diego, California

X. Budget Summary

	Instructional	Administrative	Equipment	Total
Year I	$236,165	$20,805	$106,325	$361,555
Year II	315,973	22,166	6,477	342,776
Year III	383,922	23,274	6,477	411,742
Year IV	422,819	24,435	6,477	451,706
TOTAL	1,358,879	90,680	125,756	1,567,779

Attachment I

International Commerce

Faculty

International Commerce is administered by the International Commerce Program Committee. The program draws upon courses offered by faculty in the following departments and programs: Asian Studies, Chinese, European Studies, Finance, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Latin American Studies, Management, Marketing, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish.

Chair and undergraduate advisor: A. G. Branan.

Offered by International Commerce

Major in International Commerce with an A.B. degree in liberal arts and sciences.

Advising

All International Commerce majors are required to consult with the Chair of International Commerce Program prior to declaring this major.

International Commerce Major with A.B. Degree in Liberal Arts and Sciences (Major Code)

All candidates for a degree in liberal arts and sciences must complete the graduation requirements listed in the section of this catalog on "Graduation Requirements."

Preparation for the Major (Complete I, II, and III: 39-52 units).

I. AREA STUDIES (choose one area)

A. Asian Studies (15 units)

History 100: World History, 3 units (recommended) AND
History 101: World History, 3 units (recommended)
OR
History 105: Western Civilization, 3 units AND
History 106: Western Civilization, 3 units
and six units from:
History 120: Introduction to Asian Civilizations, 3 units
History 121: Asian Civilizations in Modern Times, 3 units
Asian Studies 105: The Asian Heritage, 3 units
Asian Studies 106: The Asian Heritage, 3 units
Asian Studies 107: The Asian Heritage, 3 units (recommended)
Anthropology 102: Introduction to Cultural Anthropology, 3 units
Geography 102: Introduction to Cultural Geography, 3 units
and three units from:
Economics 100: Contemporary Economic Problems, 3 units
Political Science 103: Introduction to Comparative Government, 3 units

B. European Studies (15 units)

History 105: Western Civilization, 3 units
History 106: Western Civilization, 3 units
Classics 140: The Heritage of Greece and Rome, 3 units
and six units from:
Art 258: Appreciation and History of Art, 3 units
Art 259: Appreciation and History of Art, 3 units
Comparative Literature 210: Introduction to Comparative Literature, 3 units or
English 220: Introduction to Literature, 3 units
Geography 102: Introduction to Cultural Geography, 3 units
Music 151: Introduction to Music, 3 units
Philosophy 101: Introduction to Philosophy: Values, 3 units
Philosophy 102: Introduction to Philosophy: Knowledge and Reality, 3 units
Political Science 103: Introduction to Comparative Government, 3 units

C. Latin American Studies (12 units)

12 units from:
Anthropology 101: Human Biocultural Origins, 3 units
Geography 101: Introduction to Physical Geography, 3 units
History 115A: Comparative History of the Americas, 3 units
History 115B: Comparative History of the Americas, 3 units
Latin American Studies 101: Latin American Heritage, 3 units
Political Science 101: Introduction to Politics and the American Political System, 3 units
Political Science 103: Introduction to Comparative Government, 3 units

II. BUSINESS (15 units)

Accounting 201: Accounting Fundamentals I, 3 units
Accounting 202: Accounting Fundamentals II, 3 units
Economics 101: Principles of Economics, 3 units
Economics 102: Principles of Economics, 3 units
Mathematics 119: Elementary Statistics for Business, 3 units

III. FOREIGN LANGUAGE (choose one language)

A. Chinese (12 units)

Chinese 101: Elementary, 4 units
Chinese 102: Elementary, 4 units
Chinese 296: Experimental Topics, 4 units

B. French (22 units)

French 100A: Elementary, 5 units
French 100B: Elementary, 5 units
French 200A: French Grammar, 3 units
French 200C: Writing French, 3 units
French 200D: The Grammar of Spoken French, 3 units
French 200E: Readings in Commercial French, 3 units

C. German (20 units)

German 100A: First Course in German, 5 units
German 100B: Second Course in German, 5 units
German 200A: Grammar of Written German, 3 units
German 200B: Expository German for Reading Comprehension, 3 units
German 211: Conversation, 2 units
German 212: Conversation, 2 units

D. Italian (16 units)

Italian 100A: Elementary, 5 units
Italian 100B: Elementary, 5 units
Italian 200A: Intermediate Grammar and Composition, 3 units
Italian 200B: Reading and Speaking Italian, 3 units

E. Japanese (16 units)

Japanese 101: Elementary Japanese I, 4 units
Japanese 102: Elementary Japanese II, 4 units
Japanese 201: Intermediate Japanese I, 4 units
Japanese 202: Intermediate Japanese II, 4 units

F. Portuguese (14 units)

Portuguese 101: Elementary/Intensive, 5 units
Portuguese 211: Conversation and Grammar Review, 3 units
Portuguese 212: Conversation and Grammar Review, 3 units
Portuguese 296: Experimental Topics, 3 units

G. Russian (21 units)

Russian 101: First Course in Russian, 4-1/2 units
Russian 102: Second Course in Russian, 4-1/2 units
Russian 201: Third Course in Russian, 4 units
Russian 202: Fourth Course in Russian, 4 units
Russian 211: Conversation, 2 units
Russian 212: Conversation, 2 units

H. Spanish (19 units)

Spanish 100A: First Spanish Course, 4 units
Spanish 100B: Second Spanish Course, 4 units
Spanish 100C: Third Spanish Course, 4 units
Spanish 200: Spanish Grammar, Reading and Writing, 4 units
Spanish 203: Spanish Conversation and Composition, 3 units

Foreign Language Requirement

The foreign language requirement is automatically fulfilled through course work for preparation for the major.

Upper Division Writing Requirement

Passing the University Writing Exam or completion of one of the approved writing courses with a grade of C (2.0) or better.

Major (complete I, II, and III below: 39 units)

I. AREA STUDIES (choose one area)

A. Asian Studies (12 units)

Humanities: 6 units from:
Asian Studies 458: Asian Traditions
Asian Studies 459: Contemporary Asian Cultures
Asian Studies 499: Special Study
Asian Studies 560: History of Japanese Business and Trade
Asian Studies 596: Selected Studies in Asian Cultures
History 561A/B: Asia and the West
History 562: Civilization of India: The Great Traditions
History 563: Modern India and Its Neighbors
History 564A/B: Southeast Asia
History 566: Chinese Civilization: The Great Traditions
History 567: China's Century of Modernization
History 568: Communist Party and the Chinese Revolution
History 569: Japanese Civilization
History 570: Modern Japan
Philosophy 351: Chinese Philosophy
Philosophy 575: A Major Philosopher (when relevant)
Philosophy 596: Selected Topics (when relevant)
Religious Studies 401*: Religions of India
Religious Studies 403*: Religions of the Far East
Religious Studies 506*: Spiritual Traditions of India
Religious Studies 508*: Spiritual Traditions of East Asia
and
Social Sciences: 6 units from
Anthropology 450*: Cultures of India
Anthropology 452: Japanese Society

(continued next page)

Economics 330: Comparative Economic Systems
Economics 465: Economic Problems of South and East Asia
Geography 331: Monsoon Asia
Geography 540: Advanced Regional Geography (when relevant)
Political Science 362: Governments and Politics of East Asia
Political Science 499: Special Study (when relevant)
*Additional prerequisites are required for these courses.

B. European Studies (12 units)

12 units from:
Humanities 401A/B: The Cultural Heritage of Europe
Humanities 402A/B: The Cultural Heritage of Europe
Anthropology 440*: Cultures of Europe
Geography 336: Europe
Political Science 356: Governments of Continental Europe
*Additional prerequisites are required for these courses.

C. Latin American Studies (12 units)

12 units (with no more than six units from one department) from:
Anthropology 442: Cultures of South America
Anthropology 443: Contemporary Latin American Cultures
Anthropology 470: Prehistory of South America
Anthropology 47[illegible]: Ancient Civilizations of Mexico and Central America
Anthropology 496*: Experimental Topics
Anthropology 499*: Special Study
Art 496*: Experimental Topics
Art 499*: Special Study
Art 561: Art of Pre-Hispanic America
Art 562: Art of Latin America
Comparative Literature 445: Modern Latin American Literature
Economics 464: Economic Problems of Latin America
Economics 496*: Experimental Topics
Economics 499*: Special Study
Economics 562: International Economic Expansion and Dependence
Economics 565: U.S.-Mexico Economic Relations
Finance 329*: International Business Finance
Geography 323: Middle America
Geography 324: South America
Geography 496*: Selected Studies in Geography
Geography 499*: Special Study
History 115A/B: Comparative History of the Americas
History 496*: Issues in History
History 499*: Special Study
History 538A: The American Southwest
History 551A/B: Mexico
History 552: Brazil
History 553: Caribbean Island Nations
History 554: The Andean Republics of South America
History 555: Modernization and Urbanization in Latin America
(continued next page)

History 556: Guerrilla Movements in Latin America
History 557: History of Latin American Popular Culture and Social Thought
History 558: Latin America in World Affairs
History 596*: Selected Studies in History
Latin American Studies 101: Latin American Heritage
Latin American Studies 498: Seminar on Latin America
Latin American Studies 499: Special Study
Latin American Studies 560: Latin America After World War II
Latin American Studies 580: Special Topics
Marketing 376*: International Marketing
Mexican American Studies 306: Mexican Immigration
Mexican American Studies 310: Mexican and Chicano Music
Mexican American Studies 350A: Chicano History
Mexican American Studies 355: The United States-Mexico International Border
Mexican American Studies 375: U.S./Mexico Border History
Mexican American Studies 376: Mexican American Culture and Thought
Mexican American Studies 450: Border Health Conditions and Cultural Practices
Mexican American Studies 496*: Selected Topics in Mexican American Studies
Music 596*: Special Topics in Music
Political Science 382: International Relations of the Latin American States
Political Science 496*: Experimental Topics
Political Science 499*: Special Study
Political Science 566: Political Change in Latin America
Political Science 567: Political Systems of Latin America
Political Science 568: The Mexican Political System
Portuguese 535: Brazilian Literature
Public Administration 580*: Comparative Public Administration
Sociology 496*: Experimental Topics
Sociology 519*: Topics in Comparative Societies
Spanish 306A/B: Survey of Spanish American Literature
Spanish 441: Spanish American Civilization
Spanish 442: Mexican Civilization
Spanish 515A/B: Mexican Literature
Spanish 520: Caribbean Area Countries Literature
Spanish 522: Andean Countries Literature
Spanish 524: Contemporary Argentine Literature
Spanish 570: Spanish American Poetry
Spanish 571: Spanish American Short Story
Spanish 572: Spanish American Theatre
Spanish 596*: Selected Studies in Spanish
Women's Studies 310*: Women in Cross-Cultural Perspective
Women's Studies 496*: Experimental Topics
*Courses to be included with approval of the undergraduate advisor in Latin American Studies.

II. BUSINESS (18 units)

Finance 323: Fundamentals of Finance, 3 units
Finance 329: International Business Finance, 3 units
Management 350: Management and Organization, 3 units
Management 466: International Business Strategy and Multinational Enterprises, 3 units
Marketing 370: Marketing, 3 units
Marketing 376: International Marketing, 3 units

The Foreign Language Graduation Requirement plus all Preparation for the Major in the Business portion of this major must be comleted before enrolling in any upper division courses in Business Administration.

III. FOREIGN LANGUAGE (choose one language)

A. Chinese (9 units)

Chinese 303: Readings in Contemporary Chinese, 4 units
Chinese 304: Readings in Chinese, 4 units
Chinese 496: Topics in Chinese Studies, 1 unit

B. French (9 units)

French 301: Advanced Grammar and Composition, 3 units
French 302: Advanced Grammar and Composition, 3 units
French 423: Commercial French: Theory and Correspondence, 3 units

C. German (9 units)

German 301: Grammar and Composition, 3 units
German 302: Grammar and Composition, 3 units
and
German 403: Advanced Oral and Written German, 3 units
or
German 420: German Civilization, 3 units

D. Italian (9 units)

Italian 301: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
Italian 305A/B: Italian Literature, 3/3 units

E. Japanese (9 units)

Japanese 301: Third Year Japanese I, 3 units
Japanese 302: Third Year Japanese II, 3 units
Japanese 496: Topics in Japanese Studies, 3 units

1176

F. Portuguese (9 units)

Portuguese 301: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
Portuguese 302: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
Portuguese 535: Brazilian Literature, 3 units

G. Russian (9 units)

Russian 301: Advanced Grammar and Composition, 3 units
Russian 302: Advanced Grammar and Composition, 3 units
and
Russian 430: Civilization, 3 units
or
Russian 501: Translation, 3 units

H. Spanish (9 units)

Spanish 301A: Advanced Reading and Writing, 3 units
Spanish 301B: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
and
Spanish 302: Advanced Oral and Written Composition, 3 units
or
Spanish 304: Introduction to Spanish-English/English-Spanish Translation, 3 units

Attachment II

FTEF STAFFING SUMMARY

TOTAL

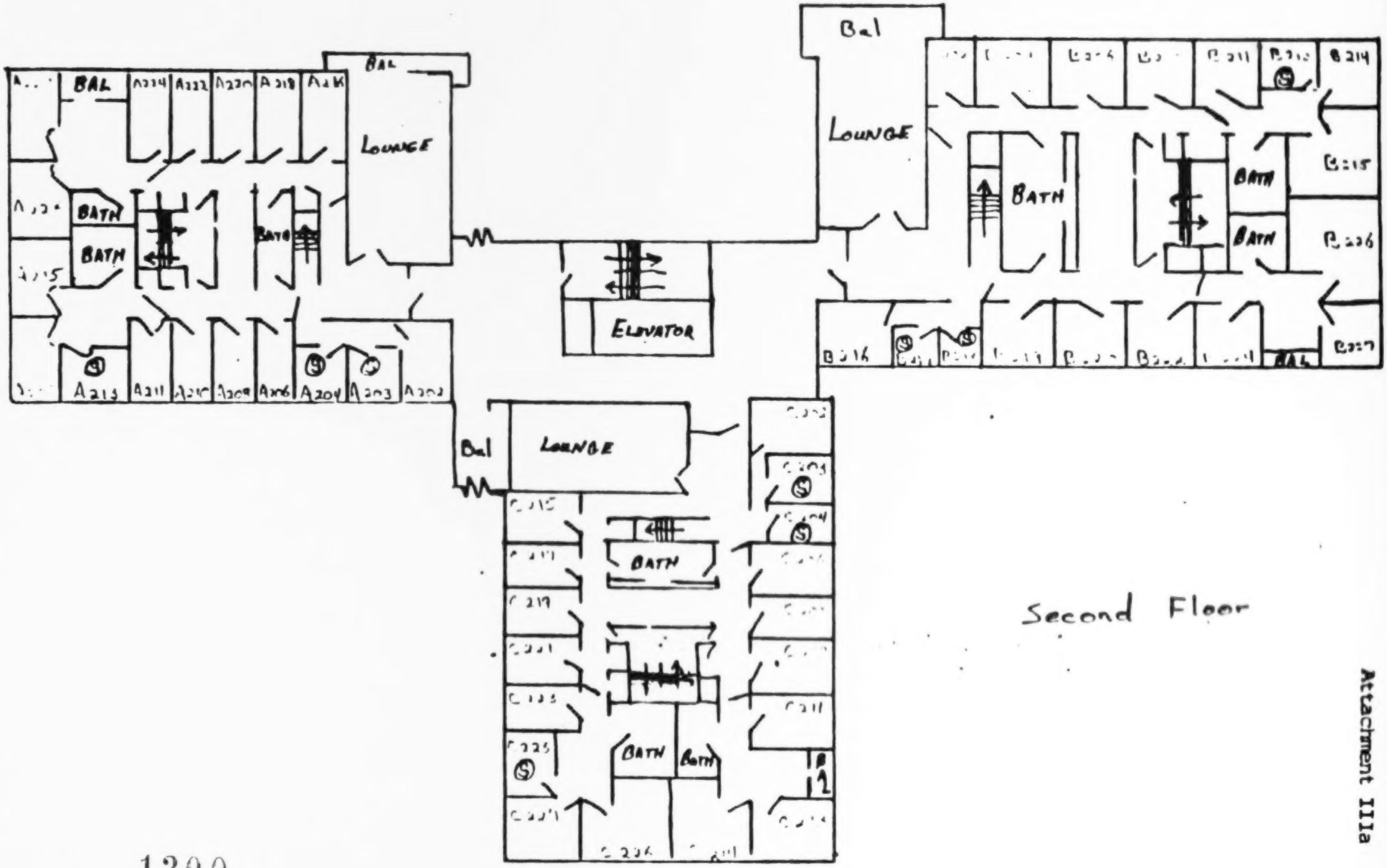
	Year I	Year II	Year III	Year IV	Year V
Business courses	.00	.00	.75	1.25	1.25
Japanese courses including modules	2.67	3.43	3.64	3.64	3.64
Spanish courses including modules	3.00	3.84	4.09	4.09	4.09
TOTAL FTEF	5.67	7.27	8.48	8.98	8.98

$ STAFFING SUMMARY (w/out 28% benefits)

TOTAL

	Year I	Year II	Year III	Year IV	Year V
Business courses	0	0	26,529	45,980	47,750
Japanese courses including modules	86,883	116,466	128,747	133,897	139,047
Spanish courses including modules	97,621	130,388	144,663	150,450	156,236
TOTAL $	184,504	246,854	299,939	330,327	343,033

Zura Hall


BAL
A224
A222
A220
A218
A216
BAL
LOUNGE
BATH
BATH
BATH
A213
A211
A210
A209
A206
A204
A203
A202
Bal
LOUNGE
B211
B212
B214
LOUNGE
BATH
BATH
BATH
B215
B226
B216
BAL
B227
ELEVATOR
Bal
LOUNGE
C215
C217
C219
C221
C223
C225
C227
C226
BATH
BATH
BATH
C211

Second Floor

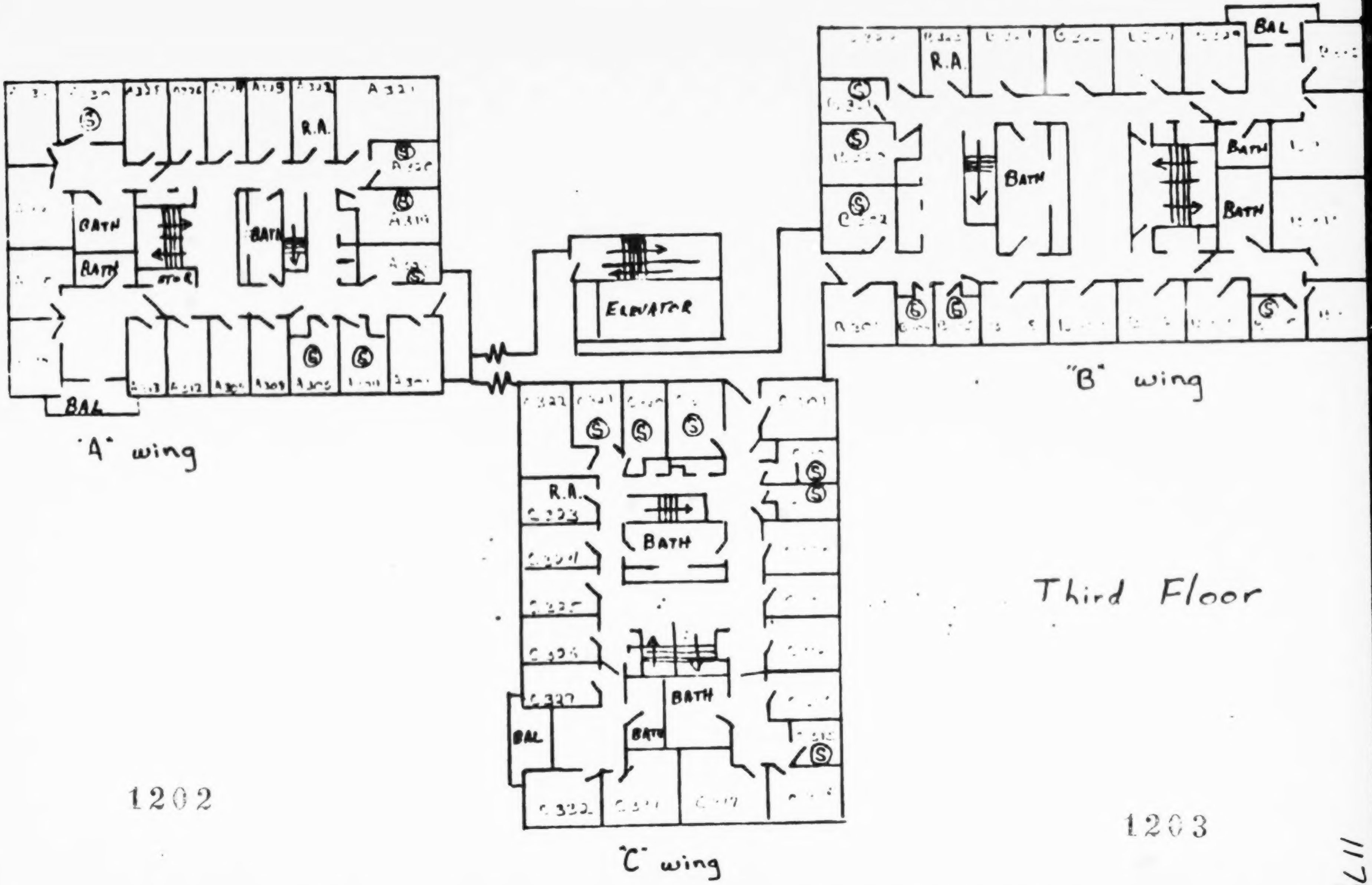
1200

1201

Attachment IIIa

1178

Zura Hall



A 321
R.A.
BATH
BATH
BATH
STOR
BAL
"A" wing
ELEVATOR
BAL
R.A.
BATH
BATH
BATH
"B" wing
R.A.
C 323
BATH
BATH
BATH
BAL
C 330
"C" wing

Third Floor

1202

1203

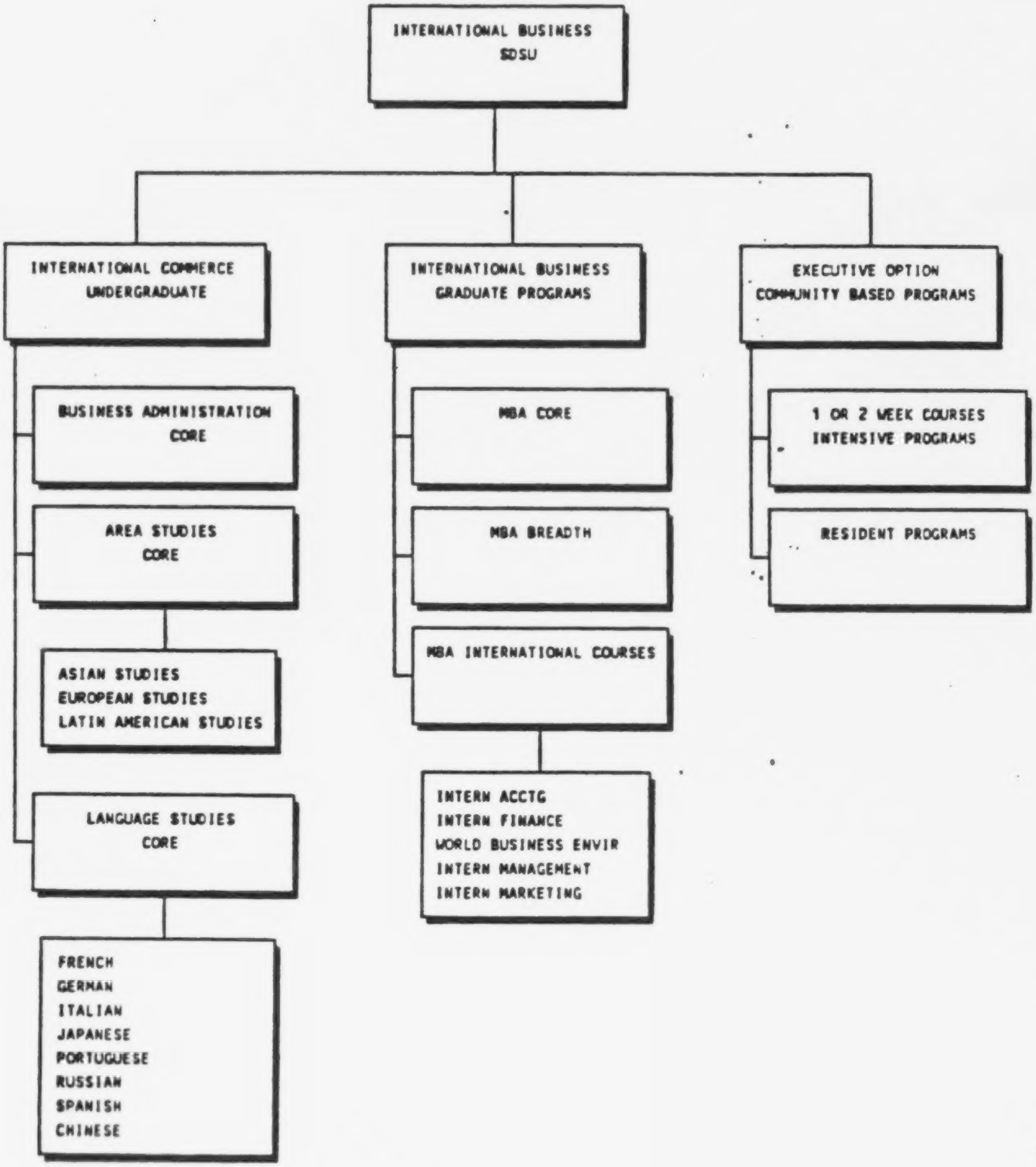
1179

Attachment IIIb 1180

Table of Externally Funded Equipment for Language Residence Halls

Ref	Qty	Item	Unit Price	Extension	Tax	Subtotal	Notes
1. Conference Room							
1a.	1	multistandard video cassette recorder/ player	$2100	$2100	$126	$2226	
1b.	1	multistandard video monitor	1100	1100	66	1166	
1c.	1	25" NTSC video monitor	1400	1400	84	1484	
1d.	1	Equipment cart	460	460	28	488	
1e.	1	Antenna system	4000	4000	240	4240	
1f.	1	Video library	2200	2200	132	2320	
1g.	1	Storage cabinet	1020	1020	61	1081	
1h.	1	Cable service subscription	450/yr	450	27	477	Yearly expense
1i.		Satellite download charges	6000/yr			6000	Yearly expense
2. Personal Computer Systems							
2a.	37	Computers & monitors	1300	48100	2886	50986	
2b.	37	Security devices	110	4070	244	4314	
2c.	37	Dot matrix printers	400	14800	888	15688	
2d.	37	Computer desks	300	11100	666	11766	
3. Shipping Allowance							
		Shipping allowance (4% of expense of untaxed funded equipment, furniture, and library items):				3614	
		TOTAL				$106325	

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS PROGRAMS
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
SAN DIEGO STATE UNIVERSITY


INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS SDSU
INTERNATIONAL COMMERCE UNDERGRADUATE
INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS GRADUATE PROGRAMS
EXECUTIVE OPTION COMMUNITY BASED PROGRAMS
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION CORE
AREA STUDIES CORE
ASIAN STUDIES
EUROPEAN STUDIES
LATIN AMERICAN STUDIES
LANGUAGE STUDIES CORE
FRENCH
GERMAN
ITALIAN
JAPANESE
PORTUGUESE
RUSSIAN
SPANISH
CHINESE
MBA CORE
MBA BREADTH
MBA INTERNATIONAL COURSES
INTERN ACCTG
INTERN FINANCE
WORLD BUSINESS ENVIR
INTERN MANAGEMENT
INTERN MARKETING
1 OR 2 WEEK COURSES
INTENSIVE PROGRAMS
RESIDENT PROGRAMS

1182

AN ATTAINABLE GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

by

Professor Viann Pedersen de Castañeda

Concordia College
901 South Eighth Street
Moorhead, MN 56560

An Attainable Global Perspective

As educators, individuals normally work within the confines of the classroom setting and, as professionals in business, individuals perform tasks in an appropriate corporate environment. If one compares the stock market crash of 1929 with the crash of 1987, one dramatic difference is obvious. In 1939, the crash preceded a depression in the United States. In 1987, the crash in the United States caused major fluctuations around the world. We no longer participate in a national economy but, rather, an interdependent global system. As educators and with the assistance of the international business community, it is possible to create a global perspective in students who are to become our future business leaders. The advantages are immediately apparent for the student as well as for business in the merger of the classroom and the corporation.

Previous to a discussion of the mechanics involved in achieving this merger, it is necessary to define our goal of an "attainable global perspective." Robert G. Hanvey maintains that such a perspective consists of five dimensions (N1-N53).

> Dimension 1. Perspective Consciousness: the recognition or awareness on the part of the individual that he or she has a view of the world that is not universally shared, that this view of the world has been and continues to be shaped by influences that often escape conscious detection, and that others have views of the world that are profoundly different from one's own.

Upon entering a college or university, the majority of students come to us without perspective consciousness. They unconsciously assume that life as they know it exists to varying degrees for everyone. One of our first responsibilities, then, is to expose them to other culture's, nation's, and individual's views.

> Dimension 2. "State of the Planet" Awareness: awareness of prevailing world conditions and developments, including emergent conditions and trends, e.g., population growth, migrations, economic conditions, resources and physical environment, political developments, science and technology, law, health, internation and intranation conflicts, etc.

We must go beyond our own national sources of information and policy to include materials which originate in other nations. It is useful to compare the interpretion of a current international incident or political or economic condition as it is presented by the various news media in several countries.

> Dimension 3. Cross-cultural Awareness: awareness of the diversity of ideas and practices to be found in human societies around the world, of how such ideas and practices compare, and including some limited recognition of how the ideas and ways one's own society might be viewed from other vantage points.

By understanding the culture of the target country or countries in which a transnational corporation operates, a business executive becomes equipped with an incredible advantage which translates as the unavoidable bottom line in business--profit. There are countless examples of the billions of dollars lost in transactions worldwide by a representative who was not well-versed in the manners, cultural concepts, and traditions based on the formation of the civilization in which he or she attempted to do business. To achieve true cross-cultural awareness, one must go beyond empathy and at least temporarily assume the beliefs of the other individual. This transpection is obtained only by practice within the other culture.

> Dimension 4. Knowledge of Global Dynamics: some modest comprehension of key traits and mechanisms of the world system, with emphasis on theories and concepts that may increase intelligent consciousness of global change.

Students need to anticipate the consequences of any dimension for any change they choose to promote and prepare for, by careful examination and prediction the causes and solutions and their ramifications on a world scale. The Iran hostages, arms sales, and Contras would be understandable examples.

Dimension 5. Awareness of Human Choices: some awareness of the problems of human choice confronting individuals, nations, and the human species as consciousness and knowledge of the global system expand.

As students are ideally prepared through education for today's global lifestyle, they should be encouraged to remember that the world exists due to human choice and that the same human choice will be as critical to the present and to the future as it has been in the past.

At Concordia College, global studies has been defined as "the interdisciplinary and value reflective teaching and research about problems global in nature" (Hovde, 5). Business combined with foreign language are the disciplines. We strive to analyze values as opposed to indoctrinate and carefully encourage the previously-mentioned dimensions of global awareness to better determine solutions to global issues and problems.

It is within this basic framework that students pursue business combined with either French, German, or Spanish. The undergraduate course requirements are as follows:

Business

155. Principles of Accounting. The fundamentals of accounting applied to proprietorships, partnerships, and corporations.
245. Intermediate Accounting Theory. A continuation of Business Administration 155 with particular emphasis on corporate accounting applications.
201. Principles of Economics. An examination of the problems of scarcity and choice and various economic problems which society must solve. Macroeconomic coverage includes national income accounting and the determinants of employment, price level, and economic growth. Money and the banking system as well as fiscal and monetary policies are covered. The microeconomic portion of the course emphasizes the theory of the consumer and the firm. Comparative systems and international trade are briefly examined.
303. Managerial Finance. The course is designed to develop an understanding of the principles of financial management. It centers on the study of planning for the acquisition and utilization of funds by businesses in the economy. The tools and techniques used to analyze and implement these plans are emphasized.

354. Statistics for Economics and Business. This course is designed to give a broad overview of statistics. Real world business applications are used to demonstrate how data gathering is accomplished and is applicable and necessary to the decision-making process. Extensive use of the computer as a calculating and graphical tool.

Spanish

211, 212. Hispanic Culture and Communication. Focus is on further development and refinement of skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing within the context of Hispanic culture and civilization.

321. Advanced Conversation and Composition. Topics of current interest serve as the subject of discussions and oral and written compositions through which students develop the ability to organize thoughts and to communicate effectively their own knowledge and ideas to others.

331. Business Spanish. A course intended for students interested in using Spanish in a business-related career. Terminology and practices appropriate to the Hispanic business world are emphasized.

361. Latin American Views. Readings related to past and present Latin America will serve as the basis for discussion and oral and written expression.

At some point in this course of study and in combination with the liberal arts requirements established by the college, students are exposed to the first dimension, perspective consciousness. This dimension is narrowed and focused for each language area and includes "state of the planet" and cross-cultural awareness, dimensions two and three, in the Business Spanish course the content of which includes:

I. Introduction to the Latin American transnational corporation
    A. Variations and similarities in corporate structure
    B. Organizational modes
    C. Types and language styles in correspondence
    D. Marketing theory applied to Latin America
    E. Management theory, comparative study
    F. Motivational theory, comparative study
    G. Labor structure and labor law

II. Cultural values
    A. Analysis and comparison of cultural origins and development in Mexico and the US
    B. Contrastive analysis of present day civilization encompassing attitudes toward work, courtesy, leisure, rituals, punishments, rewards, women, children, strangers, enemies, allies, behavorial rules, and institutions

- C. The role of cross-cultural awarensss as it applies to business practices and procedures

III. The role of national government and the impact of international policy on developing nations
- A. International organizations including the International Monetary Fund and the World Development Bank
- B. GATT
- C. Currency exchange and devaluation
- D. Inflation
- E. Internal and external debt
- F. Imports and exports

IV. Text: El Mundo de los Negocios, Alejandra Tcachuk

V. Principle student requirements
- A. Class participation
- B. Two major exams
- C. Panel discussions
- D. Business case studies
- E. Completion of individual management and motivational profiles
- F. One research paper

The course is taught entirely in the Spanish language, all student work must be done in Spanish, and all classroom materials are authentic, i.e. bills of lading, profiles, invoices, correspondence, union contracts, stock, bank and credit statements, case studies, etc.

During the necessary course work stage, the students have attained varying degrees of empathy with the foreign business environment. The most significant element within the cross-cultural dimension is transpection through practice. Students are now eligible to apply for and participate in the final stage, one semester abroad in Mexico City or Paris or Hamburg determined by individual language discipline.

The selection process depends on academic performance of a minimum cumulative grade point average, completion of an application in essay format, and an oral interview before a committee comprised of business and language professors. Student motivation, cultural adaptability, and language and business skills constitute the basic criteria for acceptance. Participants in the program then attend a series of mini-sessions to prepare for departure. Included in these sessions are the following topics and procedures:

I. Registration at the University of the Americas, Mexico City Branch (accredited in the US by the Southwestern Assocation of Colleges and Universities)

II. Plane reservations, documentation, etc.

III. Definition of individual business preference

IV. Semester requirements
    A. Complete work assignments at companies in Mexico City
    B. Attend classes and complete course work required by Mexico
    C. Keep a journal with minimum weekly entries
    D. Develop an extensive vocabulary list
    E. Correspond in Spanish bi-weekly with the faculty advisor
    F. Complete mid-term and final self-evaluation forms
    G. Submit mid-term and final evaluations to immediate company supervisor in Mexico
    H. Complete research papers, one for the Business Department and another for the Spanish Department

V. In-depth cross-cultural awareness discussions with participants specifically for Mexico City with emphasis on knowledge of global dynamics, the fourth dimension

It is all but impossible to walk into any major corporation and suggest to the Director of Personnel or the Director of Finance or even the receptionist that you are part of a global studies program and are sure that they are just waiting for you to come along so that they can deal with an inexperienced college kid screwing up their accounting department. The final stage of the program is by far the most difficult to establish and maintain and requires a liason person on location.

The Coordinator of Programs in Mexico is responsible for initially contacting the companies (preferably transnational firms) and sufficienty explaining the program in order to make it attractive to prospective companies as well as maintaining close personal contact with key individuals in participating firms. This adjunct faculty member is also responsible for locating and maintaining housing with families and preparing a budget which contemplates devaluation and inflation relative to housing costs and foreign tuition and fees. In addition, this person takes over all student advisement and needed supervision and serves as an on-location problem solver and resource consultant for all students involved during the entire semester. Lastly, this individual oversees registration procedures and serves as a contact person for the University. Periodic reports containing information ranging from in-country political and economic developments to student attitudes, adjustments, successes, or failures are also supplied to the college.

All aspects of this program require an extraordinary amount of attention to detail. Participating companies in Mexico include Dow Corning, Phillips, Time International, American Standard, Oxford University Press, the American Chamber of Commerce and a brokerage house, Casa de Bolsa Prime.

Graduates from this program can be found at the American Graduate School of International Management and as accountants, auditors, sales representatives and analysts for Spanish-speaking markets, administrative assistants, and management trainees at international firms throughout the United States. We assume and I believe that, the majority of these students have entered the fifth dimension of global awareness--that of human choice--and will make decisions based on global criteria in order to improve the human condition.

Works Cited

Hanvey, Robert G. "An Attainable Global Perspective." The Return Home: A Re-Entry Reader. Ed. Bruce LaBrack. Stockton, CA: College of the Pacific, 1985. N1-N53.

Hovde, Peter. Global Education: Underpinnings for Implementation. Moorhead: Concordia College, 1987.

International Business

An Interdisciplinary Program

Have you ever thought about combining a business administration or economics major with the study of a foreign language? This mix is becoming increasingly popular in the United States as students realize that foreign businesses have made significant inroads into U.S. markets and that many domestic firms now do extensive business overseas. To work and, in many cases, compete with these companies, Americans must understand the languages and cultures of other nations.

Specializing in International Business

A limited number of students are accepted into Concordia's international business program each year. Selection is made by a faculty committee representing the economics and business administration department and each of the foreign language departments. Students chosen to participate must be knowledgeable in business, demonstrate necessary language proficiency, and possess good human relations skills.

Requirements for a specialization in international business are a major in business administration or economics (see page 63), fulfillment of foreign language requirements, and the satisfactory completion of a three- or four-month foreign Cooperative Education experience (see page 28).

Prior to the Cooperative Education experience abroad, students must have completed the foreign language requirements and Business Administration 155, 245, 303; Economics 201; and one of the following: Economics 301, 302, 354, 357. For the semester abroad, students pay tuition to Concordia; visa and passport fees; and transportation, lodging and food costs.

As preparation for the foreign Cooperative Education experience, membership and participation in Concordia's student chapter of the Administrative Management Society is recommended. To guarantee that all requirements can be met, students interested in the international business program should indicate that interest to their advisers as early as possible.

Upon graduation, in addition to the college diploma, students receive a certificate attesting to the completion of the international business program.

Specific Programs

French

French students majoring in economics or business administration with an international business emphasis study international economics, finance, marketing and management at a French university either fall or spring semester. Typically that requirement is met by completing three upper-level courses at the Institut de Gestion de Rennes, the business management institute at the University of Rennes in France. Following the semester of study, students are placed in a six- to eight-week internship with a French company or with an American multinational company based in France. In addition to completing the requirements for economics and business administration, they must have completed French 111 and 112 or equivalent, 221, 222, 311, 331. French 331 may be waived by the department in some cases.

German

German students majoring in economics or business administration with an international business emphasis gain an international understanding of business through foreign study, a summer internship or a combination of the two. Students may choose to study at a specialized institution of business in Germany for a semester, then complete an internship with a German or American business firm in Germany. Another option is to gain work experience through an internship in a German-speaking country. Internships with American subsidiaries of German companies or the international departments of stateside firms are also possibilities. In addition to completing the requirements for economics or business administration, students must have completed German 111 and 112 or equivalent, 211, 212, 314, and 321 or 322.

Spanish

Spanish students majoring in economics or business administration with an international business emphasis spend a semester in Mexico studying business courses at the Universidad de las Américas in Mexico City. They also gain work experience in a Mexican business firm through the Cooperative Education internship. During their semester abroad students live in Mexican homes. In addition to completing the requirements for economics or business administration, participants must have completed Spanish 211, 212, 321, 331, 361.

Committee

Thomas W. Hiestand
Chairperson of the committee
Norbert G. Benzel
Paul A. Bernier
DuWain A. Fagerstrom
David R. Green
Theodore H. Heimarck
Willard E. Hiebert
E. Dale Lindquist
David S. Moewes
Viann M. Pederson de Castañeda
Donna J. Skaar
Roger H. Spilde
Ellen Weber

Adjunct Faculty

Marie-Thérèse Reed
Université de Rennes
Nanette de Paoli
Coordinator of programs in Mexico

Course Content for Business Administration and Spanish

I. Introduction to the Latin American transnational corporation
  A. Variations and similarities in corporate structure
  B. Organizational modes
  C. Types and language styles in correspondence
  D. Marketing theory applied to Latin America
  E. Management theory, comparative study
  F. Motivational theory, comparative study
  G. Labor structure and labor law

II. Cultural values
  A. Analysis and comparison of cultural origins and development in Mexico and the US
  B. Contrastive analysis of present day civilization encompassing attitudes toward work, courtesy, leisure, rituals, punishments, rewards, women, children, strangers, enemies, allies, behavorial rules, and institutions
  C. The role of cross-cultural awarensss as it applies to business practices and procedures

III. The role of national government and the impact of international policy on developing nations
  A. International organizations including the International Monetary Fund and the World Development Bank
  B. GATT
  C. Currency exchange and devaluation
  D. Inflation
  E. Internal and external debt
  F. Imports and exports

IV. Text: El Mundo de los Negocios, Alejandra Tcachuk

V. Principle student requirements
  A. Class participation
  B. Two major exams
  C. Panel discussions
  D. Business case studies
  E. Completion of individual management and motivational profiles
  F. One research paper

Course Content for Pre-departure Mini-sessions

I. Registration at the University of the Americas, Mexico City Branch (accredited in the US by the Southwestern Assocation of Colleges and Universities)

II. Plane reservations, documentation, etc.

III. Definition of individual business preference

IV. Semester requirements
  A. Complete work assignments at companies in Mexico City
  B. Attend classes and complete course work required by Mexico
  C. Keep a journal with minimum weekly entries
  D. Develop an extensive vocabulary list
  E. Correspond in Spanish bi-weekly with the faculty advisor
  F. Complete mid-term and final self-evaluation forms
  G. Submit mid-term and final evaluations to immediate company supervisor in Mexico
  H. Complete research papers, one for the Business Department and another for the Spanish Department

V. In-depth cross-cultural awareness discussions with participants specifically for Mexico City with emphasis on knowledge of global dynamics, the fourth dimension

VI. Sample list of topics for final paper in Spanish for International Business Program in Mexico
  A. Compare marketing techniques and their function in each country
  B. Discuss how inflation and devaluation affect companies as a whole or specifically their cash flow, credit, inventory procedure, and production
  C. Discuss the social crisis at upper, middle, and low income levels caused by economic crises, using such supporting evidence as statistical, informational, and survey data
  D. Analyze the technocratic management style of De la Madrid and its effect on the PRI institution as it has operated in the past and predictions of how it will change in the future
  E. Analyze through economics the United States', IMF's, and Banco Mundial's influence on the debt crisis, including rescheduling and the long-term economic impact on the countries, international lending institutions, and world economy
  F. Analyze GATT and Mexico's resistance and final entry decision, including protectionism, the significance of the international trade balance in Third World countries, and the impact of US influence
  G. Study the effect of US Prime Rate fluctuations and their significance to interest payments on external debt
  H. Discuss the US political and economic manipulation of Mexico, why the US fails to deal correctly in some situations, and why Mexico reacts as it does
  I. Discuss human relations, including the value of individualism, liberty, the art of conversation, use of time, kinds and types of racism, the value of not being practical, and how it all affects international understanding

CONCORDIA COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

CONCORDIA COLLEGE
MOORHEAD, MINNESOTA 56560

COOPERATIVE EDUCATION
INTERNSHIPS
FIELD EXPERIENCES

FINAL EVALUATION OF COOPERATIVE EDUCATION STUDENT BY EMPLOYER SUPERVISOR

STUDENT'S NAME Carrie Rausch

Please express a candid opinion of this student as an employee. Criticisms and comments are earnestly solicited. This information will be utilized by the Director of Cooperative Education and by the student's Faculty Coordinator for determination of the final grade. You are urged to discuss this evaluation with the student before returning it to the Office of Cooperative Education. This evaluation will not be confidential.

RELATIONS WITH OTHERS ☒ Exceptionally well accepted ☐ Works well with others ☐ Gets along satisfactorily ☐ Has some difficulty working with others ☐ Works very poorly with others ☐ Unable to evaluate	**ABILITY TO LEARN** ☒ Learns very quickly ☐ Learns readily ☐ Average in learning ☐ Rather slow to learn ☐ Very slow to learn ☐ Unable to evaluate	**ATTITUDE—APPLICATION TO WORK** ☒ Outstanding in enthusiasm ☐ Very interested and industrious ☐ Average in diligence and interest ☐ Somewhat indifferent ☐ Definitely not interested ☐ Unable to evaluate
JUDGMENT ☐ Exceptionally mature ☒ Above average in making decisions ☐ Usually makes the right decision ☐ Often uses poor judgment ☐ Consistently uses bad judgment ☐ Unable to evaluate	**QUALITY OF WORK** ☐ Excellent ☒ Very good ☐ Average ☐ Below average ☐ Very poor ☐ Unable to evaluate	**DEPENDABILITY** ☐ Completely dependable ☒ Above average in dependability ☐ Usually dependable ☐ Sometimes neglectful or careless ☐ Unreliable ☐ Unable to evaluate

ATTENDANCE: Reg. ☒ Irreg. ☐ **PUNCTUALITY:** Reg. ☒ Irreg. ☐

OVERALL RATING: Excellent ☒ Very Good ☐ Average ☐ Marginal ☐ Poor ☐

Please comment on the student's strengths and areas for improvement. Please use the reverse side if necessary.

Mostró una alta responsabilidad con respecto a las tareas que se le encomendaron. Tiene una gran capacidad para las relaciones públicas y para la atención de gente en búsca de información. Es organizada, puntual y con disposición para el trabajo, Mostró, asimismo, un buen avance en el aprendizaje del idioma español. Una gran cualidad es que no se distrae mientras trabaja; otra más consistió en su rápida adaptación al equipo de trabajo de la Cámara.

Herminio Hernández R. International Trade American Chamber of Commerce of Mexico
Signature Title Company/Agency

Lucerna #78 - Col. Juárez December 2, 1987
Address Date

An Equal Opportunity Employer

Problemas del subdesarrollo

Monsieur Dupont te llama inculto,
porque ignoras cual era el nieto
preferido de Victor Hugo.

Herr Müller se ha puesto a gritar,
porque no sabes el dia
(exacto) que murio Bismarck.

Mr. Smith,
ingles o yanqui, yo no lo sé,
se subleva cuando escribes *shell*.
(Parece que ahorras una ele,
y que además pronuncias *chel*.)

Bueno ¿y qué?
Cuando te toque a ti,
mándales decir Huancavelica,
y que dónde está el Aconcagua,
y que quién era Sucre,
y que en qué lugar de este planeta
murió Martí.
(Por favor:
que te hablen siempre en español.)

Nicolás Guillén.
Patria o Muerte: The Great
Zoo and Other Poems.
La Habana, 1972.

Problems of Underdevelopment

Monsieur Dupont calls you uncultured
because you cannot say who was
Victor Hugo's favorite grandson.

Herr Muller has started to scream
because you do not know (exactly)
the day that Bismarck died.

Mr. Smith,
an Englishman or Yankee, I cannot tell,
explodes when you write *Shell*.
(It seems that you eliminate an *l*
and, what is more, pronounce it *chel*.)

Well, so what?
When your turn comes,
tell them to say Huancavelica,
and where the Aconcagua's found,
and who was Sucre,
and in what spot on the planet
Martí died.
(Please:
have them always speak to you in Spanish.)

Line 14 Huancavelica is a town in the Peruvian Andes.

Line 16 Antonio Jose de Sucre (1793–1830) was a Venezuelan general, one of the liberators of South America and first president of Bolivia.

A MODEL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INTERPRETATION SERVICE FOR NON-NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKING HISPANIC PATIENTS

by

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INTRODUCTION

Over 300,000,000 people in the world, think and express themselves in Spanish. And since many of these come from countries with rapidly growing populations, it has been estimated that by the year 2000 Spanish will be the major language of approximately 500,000,000 people.

The US Census Bureau recently reported that the Spanish-speaking population in the United States has increased by approximately 30% between 1980 and 1987—bringing the total number of Hispanics in the country to 1.8 million. This explosion in the number of Hispanics is attributable to two major factors: the recent influx of immigrants and refugees into the country and the increased fertility rate of Hispanic women.

A profile [1] of the population of Massachusetts shows that in 1985, the Hispanic population has grown to 221,783. Although 58% of the population is somewhat bilingual in English and Spanish,

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[1] Royal L. Poling Sr., Senate Chair, Kevin W. Fitzgerald, House Chair, and Dr. Yohel Camayd-Freixas, Hispanic Chair: *Hispanics in Massachusetts: A Demographic Analysis* Boston, The Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Commission of Hispanic Affairs, 1986.

23% do not speak English at all. This has translated into the fact that the Hispanic in Massachusetts has had difficulty accessing professional human services. And until we maximize our ability to communicate effectively this condition will continue to persist.

We can no longer depend on marginally qualified personnel to translate or interpret complex situations—it is costly and compromises the well being of the non-English speaking individual. In fact, the current legislative process has begun to recognize that the public health and safety of the Hispanic is compromised by lack of proper communication. Consequently, the regional Civil Rights Office in the New England area has begun to examine agencies that fail to provide competent human services because of lack of interpreters or translators and to consider these failures as violations of Title VI of The Civil Rights Act of 1974.

Despite the recognition of these facts, many health-care providers have not been able to identify competent interpreters/translators or bilingual professionals to serve during the provision of services.

To address these needs, we designed a model for the development of a Spanish/English interpretation service in health-care facilities. The first step of the process is to call for the cooperation and commitment of the senior administration of the institution. It is unlikely that any interpreter service will operate optimally unless this senior administration is willing to work with and encourage the director of said service and the interpreters and ask for the cooperation from the supervisory staff of all other service areas of the institution.

THE MODEL

The model is developed by the following four major steps: 1) an assessment of the institution's needs for the service, 2) the identification of potential interpreters among the institution's staff and in the community, as well as those professional interpretation/translation agencies accessible to the institution, 3) the training of the interpreter, and 4) the establishment of a system of management to coordinate the activities of the interpreters within the institution.

Assessment of Need

To asses the need for the service, the institution is requested to establish—preferably by service area—the number of Spanish speaking patients who need interpreters. The assessor is warned to include those individuals who need interpreters to understand a clinical situation—even though the individual might be able to speak some English. A card with the information shown below has proven useful in collecting the data.

TO OUR PATIENTS:	**A NUESTROS PACIENTES:**
DO YOU NEED AN INTERPRETER TO COMMUNICATE?	**¿NECESITA INTERPRETE PARA COMUNICARSE?**
YES ____ NO ____	**SI ____ NO ____**
I AM NOW IN THE ______________ DEPARTMENT.	**ACTUALMENTE ESTOY EN EL DEPARTAMENTO DE ______________**
DATE: ________	**FECHA: ________**

These data are collected during a minimum of four weeks—but preferably throughout a longer period of time. If at the end of the survey period, the interpreter-requiring population has been estimated to be 5% or more of the total patient population, the institution should consider establishing an in-house interpreter service—rather than rely on external interpretation services.

Identification of Interpreters

After the need has been established, with the assistance from the department of human resources, the potential interpreters within the institutions pool of bilingual employees are identified. Those who are willing to interpret are identified by name and their location in the institution, home address, home and work telephone numbers recorded. The pool is then divided into three major categories:

1) Category I: non-clinical non-administrative bilingual persons who can perform tasks such as greeting and directing patients. At a minimum these individual should have a high school education and command of English and Spanish. Many of these interpreters are found among the non-clinical services from which they can be summoned without compromising the well being of patients. Their major value lies in their ability to communicate to the service provider the fact that the patient requires (or does not require) a more qualified interpreter with medical or administrative training.

2) Category II: These interpreters are selected to interpret during clinical situations or to communicate administrative information to the patient. At a minimum these interpreters should have knowledge of the language required to communicate the important aspects of clinical and administrative health-care delivery processes. Many of these interpreters are administrative personnel, members of the nursing staff, resident physicians and other health-care professionals.

3) Category III: These interpreters are bilingual professionals who can handle the explanation of complex treatment plans, prognoses or diagnoses. Many of these are physicians, nurses and senior level administrators. Because of their responsibilities to the institution, these individuals usually provide the interpretations by appointment.

Training of the Interpreters

The interpreters (especially those in Category I) are trained in the use of Spanish and English medical and administrative vocabulary. At the onset they are provided with codes of ethics to follow in carrying out their duties. (Emphasis is placed on the need of confidentiality.) By administering a pre-examination[1] the specific needs of the group are determined and a course of study designed accordingly. Since most would-be interpreters have been selected because of their well-developed basic language skills, the classes focus on applying the vocabulary by role-playing specific clinical situations. During these sessions, the trainee is taught how to use specific techniques—such as, assertion, empathy, persistence, repetition, etc.—necessary to maximize the communication between the client and the service provider. The students are also taught how the psychosocial heterogeneity of cultures can affect the communication process. Glossaries and a list of dictionaries and texts are provided for the interpreters to use for self study and in the performance of their work. The most useful texts have been:

1) Ruiz-Torres F. Diccionario de Términos Médicos Inglés-Español/Español-Inglés. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 1981.

2) García-Pelayo y Gross R. Gran diccionario moderno español/inglés Larousse. Mexico:Larousse; 1983.

3) Diccionario terminológico de ciencias médicas. 12th ed. Barcelona:Salvat; 1984.

4) Illustrated Stedman's medical dictionary. 24th ed. Baltimore:Williams and Wilkins; 1982.

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[1] A sample pre-examination will be handed out at the meeting.

5) Tabery JJ, Webb MR, Velásquez Mueller B. Communicating in Spanish for medical personnel. 2nd ed. Little Brown:Boston; 1984

6) Fryer BT, Faria HJ. Talking business in Spanish. New York : Barron's; 1987.

7) Speedy Spanish for medical personner. Santa Barbara : Baja Books; 1980.

8) El manual Merck de diagnóstico y terapéutica. Merck Sharp and Dohme: Rahway; 1986.

This training is intended to serve as the spring board from which the individual interpreters go into in-service training to increase his/her talents as an interpreter. The specific number of hours required for the training vary according to the number and skills of the participants and the specific needs of the institution. But on the average, eight interpreters can be trained in four weeks (eight hour of formal training per week plus the necessary number of hours of self study). Obviously, if the institution wishes to maintain and increase the proficiency of its interpreters, it must encourage them to attend in service training and workshops and seminars that address not only the issues of communicating in different languages but also the innovations that take place in the health-care delivery process.

The System of Management

Finally—but concomitantly with the above—a system of management is developed. An individual with experience in health-care administration, the appropriate language skills and knowledge of the health-care process is selected to direct the service. Together with the senior administration of the institution, the director is assisted with the establishment of a system of management, setting the fees to be paid the interpreters, designing a system for summoning the interpreters to the site of need on a twenty-four hour basis and in procuring the necessary legal information pertinent to the interpretation process. It is suggested to the director that the interpreters be provided with an identifying blazer or coat and name tags. This is useful for interpreters whose regular duties are performed in areas, such as food services, housekeeping or maintenance, that call for the use of clothing that is not appropriate in patient-care areas.

Results

This service has been found to be valuable in that it maximizes the health-care delivery process to the non-native English speaking Hispanic patient. The experience of the authors has been that without appropriate communication between the health-care provider and the patient the service delivered is inadequate. Inappropriate communication often results in costly adverse effects to the patient. Hispanic cultures and subcultures are vital components of the larger Anglo American culture of which they are a part, and it is neither economically nor socially sound to ignore their needs. This model represents a positive approach to meeting this challenge.